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*Annual report and*

# PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

## Fifty-Fifth Annual Convention

OF THE

# Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN

## TORONTO

On the 24th, 25th, 26th and 27th April, 1916



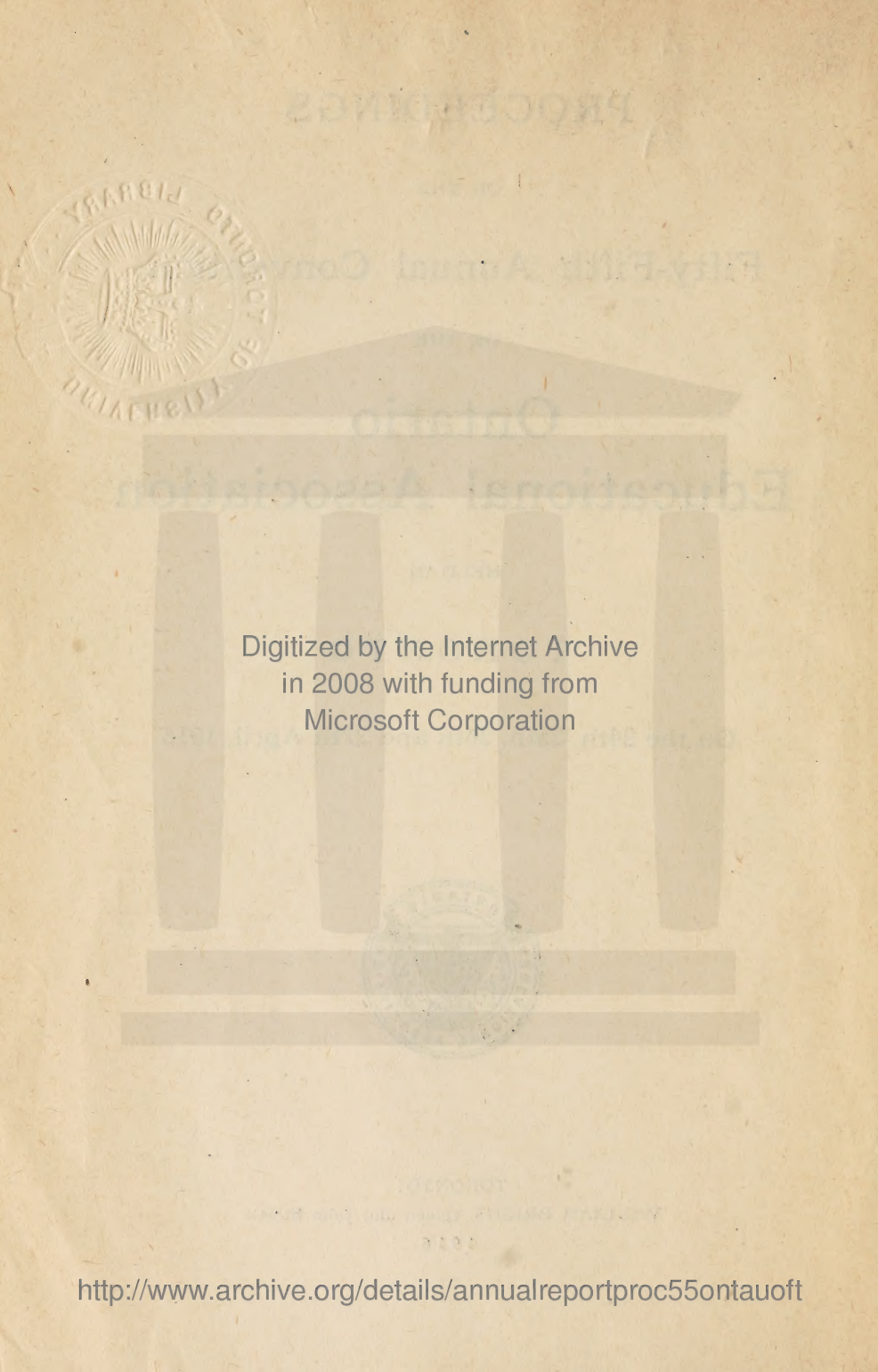
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1913	C. A. MAYBERRY, LL.B.
1914	W. J. SUMMERBY.
1915	CHAS. G. FRASER.



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PROCEEDINGS  
OF  
The Fifty-Fifth Annual Convention  
OF THE  
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

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*MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 25th, 1916.

The Association met in the Auditorium, Central Technical School. President Chas. G. Fraser took the chair at 8 o'clock p.m.

Rev. John W. Woodside conducted the devotional exercises by reading from Psalm 139 and leading in prayer.

Moved by Rev. James Buchanan and seconded by Mr. William Scott, that as the minutes for 1915 have been printed and distributed among the members, they be considered as read and are hereby confirmed. Carried.

A letter from Mrs. Ord-Marshall, Honorary Secretary of the League of Empire, London, England, was read, and is as follows:

13TH JANUARY, 1916.

SIR,—The Imperial Education Conference which should have been held in Canada next summer having been postponed owing to the war, the League, in accordance with the Minister of Education for Ontario, will hold an interim meeting in London, so that touch may be maintained between British Teachers and those from Overseas who may happen at that time to be in England. At this meeting the discussion will chiefly deal with educational conditions induced or influenced by the war, and



it is proposed that the first papers treat of questions in the Overseas Dominions. We shall be very glad to know if you can suggest some member of your Association who could send us statistics of the number of your members who have joined the services and also any notes of questions or conditions arising therefrom. Such a communication would be of great interest to those in all parts of the Empire.

As it is likely that many relations of those engaged in the war will be in England this year, it is proposed to hold a "summer meeting" in connection with the Conference, to which others besides teachers will be eligible; the subject for this meeting will be "Historic and Civic London." It is thought there may be many who will like to see and learn more of conditions in the central city of the Empire, in the same way as those here should study the history and conditions of the Dominions beyond the seas.

We shall be grateful if you will assist our Conference and "summer meeting" by making it known among your members and their friends and also amongst any who may be interested in Imperial studies.

The Conference will take place on Saturday and Monday the 15th and 17th July next, and the "summer meeting" for visits and investigation respecting Historic and Civic London immediately afterwards.

I am, Sir,

Yours faithfully,

E. M. ORD-MARSHALL,

*Hon. Secretary.*

R. W. DOAN, Esq.,

*The General Secretary,*

Ontario Educational Association,

Toronto, Canada.

Moved by W. F. Chapman, B.A., seconded by Henry Ward, B.A., that Mrs. Ord-Marshall's letter be referred to the Board of Directors to be dealt with as the writer requests. Carried.

Addresses of welcome were given by:

1. Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education.  
See page 85.

2. William Houston, M.A., Chairman Board of Education,  
Toronto. See page 89.

3. W. O. McTaggart, B.A., Chairman Advisory Industrial  
Committee of the Board of Education, Toronto. See page 92.

President Fraser addressed the Association on "Ambassadors  
to the Court of Childhood." See page 95.

Mr. R. A. Gray, B.A., Chairman of the Superannuation Com-  
mittee reported as follows:

#### REPORT OF THE SUPERANNUATION COMMITTEE.

Your Committee met at the close of the Easter meeting of  
1915 and prepared a plan of campaign for the year. They  
decided:

1. That owing to the fact that the Bill that received its first  
reading in the session of 1915 was not clearly understood by  
everyone, literature explanatory of the Bill should be prepared  
and disseminated throughout the Province.

2. That further explanation should be made at meetings of  
Teachers' Institutes in October.

3. That the opinions of all teachers whether in favor of or  
against the scheme, should be procured in order to meet the  
desires of the Prime Minister that the teachers should express  
their views of the scheme before the passage of the Bill.

4. That efforts should be made to interest Boards of Educa-  
tion, County Councils, the Press and members of the Legislature,  
and that the Government should again be interviewed.

The members of the Committee resident in Toronto were  
appointed an Executive Committee to carry out these plans.

A pamphlet was prepared which explains very briefly the  
essential provisions of the Bill and which also states some reasons  
why teachers should give a whole-hearted support to the measure.  
These were sent to Teachers' Institutes for distribution.

The Committee also offered to supply speakers to all Teachers'  
Institutes that applied for such aid for the purpose of still further  
elucidating the Bill. Additional literature was prepared and

sent to those who volunteered to speak at these meetings. In order to secure as full an expression of opinion as possible, forms for signature, whether for or against the scheme, were issued for use at Teachers' Institutes. The response was most gratifying. In almost every Institute throughout the Province the efforts of the Committee were courteously received, and nearly all of them expressed their desire for a scheme of superannuation. More than 5,800 teachers signed in favor of the scheme, while barely 800 signed against it. Several associations did not sign, but voted in favor of it, though others—not more than half a dozen in all—declined to sign, either because the majority were not in favor of superannuation or because they thought that certain clauses of the Bill should be amended.

Your Committee also, with the object of learning the attitude of the Separate School Teachers to Superannuation, interviewed His Grace Archbishop McNeill, of Toronto, and had a most cordial and sympathetic reception.

The Catholic Record, which may be supposed to voice separate school opinion, in an editorial last summer, expressed strong approval of superannuation.

A meeting of the Committee was held in Toronto on Dec. 21st, 1915, and it was decided that, in view of the opinions of some teachers and other persons, the following suggested modifications should be offered to the Government for their consideration so that they might be embodied in the Bill when it should again be brought forward in the Legislature.

- (a) That the bill be amended so as to make it possible for a teacher to retire after thirty years of service on an allowance which shall be calculated on an actuarial basis.
- (b) That from the very inception of the Fund, the contributions of those who die in the service shall be returned to their heirs.
- (c) That the provisions on which the Actuary based his calculations and which are expected to be operative after a period of ten years be embodied in the Bill but that they remain inoperative for the first six years except those provisions which were mentioned in the First Reading of the Bill and those which are provided for in the amendments herewith suggested.



- (d) That the Bill be so amended as to provide that those who were teaching at the time the Bill received its First Reading, or who have since entered the profession, or may hereafter enter it shall come within the scope of its benefits.
- (e) That a committee of three be appointed to consider the claims of those who are at present paying into the Ryerson Superannuation Fund.

Modification (a) is intended to convey the idea that a teacher or an inspector may retire after 30 or more years' service on a *pension*, which is to be the exact equivalent of that granted after 40 years' service, taking due account of the fewer contributions that would be made and the longer time the pension would be enjoyed; or in other words, that the pension granted after 30 or more years' service, should be the actuarial equivalent of that specified in the Bill for 40 years' service. No change in the contributions or in any of the benefits would be necessary as a result of adopting this suggestion.

Modification (e) was intended to present to the favorable consideration of the Government the cases of those teachers who are contributing to the old superannuation fund and to command them for more generous treatment than appears in the Bill. The duty of the Committee mentioned in this recommendation is to suggest to the Government a satisfactory solution of these cases.

There was quite a voluminous though chiefly anonymous correspondence in the daily press, but your committee found time to reply to only a very few of the letters. The editorials in the press were almost all entirely favorable to superannuation.

It should also be noted that School Boards of various cities such as Hamilton, Brantford, London and Toronto passed resolutions endorsing a superannuation scheme.

The County Councils were approached by your Committee. One County Council in November had been active in its opposition to the scheme, and had put itself in communication with many of the County Councils of the Province, but the view of the scheme taken by it showed so great a lack of knowledge, and so complete a misunderstanding of the scheme, that we believe that the effect of its efforts was by no means injurious to the

cause of superannuation. The Committee prepared a reply to this attack and communicated it to every County Council in the Province.

The Hon. W. H. Hearst, Prime Minister of Ontario, twice granted us the privilege of an interview during the year, and on both occasions several members of the Cabinet were present with him. Both the Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, acting Minister of Education and the Hon. Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education, on his recent return from active army duty in England, gave us very sympathetic hearings and we believe we have their hearty support to the scheme. The Hon. N. W. Rowell, the leader of the Opposition, also showed great interest in the Bill and by his questions, when the Committee approached him, gave evidence of having a comprehensive grasp of the main features of the Bill.

The result of all efforts during the year has been that in the expiring hours of the last day of the session which has just closed, the Bill of last year, with certain modifications, was re-introduced, and, like that of last year, received one reading only.

The modifications and additions made in the new Bill are these:

- (1) Neither School Boards, nor County Councils are to be asked for any contribution to the funds of the scheme, but the 1 per cent. which was allotted to them in the Bill of 1915 is to be shared equally by the Government and by the teachers. The contribution now asked from teachers is  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of their salary instead of 2 per cent. and the Government is also to contribute a sum equal to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of the teachers' salaries instead of 2 per cent. as was formerly proposed.
- (2) Contributors may retire after 30 years of service if they wish to do so.
- (3) Sect. 14 (4) "Upon the death of a teacher or inspector, while engaged in the profession, his personal representatives shall be entitled to receive out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund, a sum equal to the total amount contributed by him to the Fund during his lifetime." See Section 14, subsection (3).

Thus only two of the recommendations of the Committee have been embodied in the new Bill. Section 14 (4) which provides for retiring after 30 or more years of service, at the option of the teacher, is very obscure and evidently does not convey the meaning of the Committee's recommendation. We think, too, that it does not express the intention of the framers of the Bill and it should be rewritten. Again seeing that Boards of Education and County Councils are no longer to be asked for any contribution to the Fund, they are not entitled to have any representation on the Committee of Management. The clause of the Bill concerning the Management of the Fund, is thus not in harmony with the changes that have been made in the Bill.

The work done by your Committee throughout the year has been very great and the chief credit for the organization of that work and for the correspondence should be given to one of the joint secretaries, Mr. Charles G. Fraser, the present president of the Association, who spared neither time nor energy in seeking to bring the efforts of the year to a successful issue.

We would recommend that the Association again appoint a Superannuation Committee for the coming year.

R. A. GRAY,

*Chairman of the Superannuation Committee.*

Moved by Mr. Gray, seconded by Rev. James Buchanan, that the report of the Superannuation Committee be adopted. Carried.

#### SUPERANNUATION COMMITTEE.

Moved by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., seconded by Mr. T. A. Reid, that the following members be the Superannuation Committee for the ensuing year:

R. A. Gray, B.A., Toronto; Wm. Scott, B.A., Toronto; Chas. G. Fraser, Toronto; Miss E. Abram, Chatham; Miss H. E. Barney, Kingston; Mr. C. A. B. Brown, Toronto; Rev. Jas. Buchanan, Elmvale; Mr. A. W. Burt, Brantford; Mr. N. W. Campbell, Durham; Miss M. M. Carpenter, Gananoque; Mr. W. F. Chapman, Toronto; Mr. G. A. Cole, Orillia; Mr. E. A. Doolittle, Orillia; Mr. Robert Gillies, Port Hope; Mr. E. S. Hogarth, Hamilton; Miss H. E. Heakes, Toronto; Miss H.



Johnston, Toronto; Mr. T. A. Kirkeconnell, Lindsay; Mr. Martin Kerr, Hamilton; Mr. Wm. Linton, Galt; Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas; G. K. Powell, B.A., Toronto; J. F. Power, M.A., Toronto; Dr. J. H. Putman, Ottawa; Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound; Miss J. P. Semple, Toronto; Mr. W. J. Snelgrove, London; Mr. John Rogers, Lindsay; Mr. W. Tytler, Guelph; Mr. H. Ward, Toronto. Carried.

The nomination of officers resulted in the following officers being elected:

*President* . . . . Maurice Hutton, M.A., LL.D., Toronto.

*Secretary* . . . . Robert Willson Doan, 216 Carlton St., Toronto.

*Treasurer* . . . . Henry Ward, B.A., Toronto.

The Board of Directors requested that the following report of a Special Committee, appointed by the said Board, for the purpose "of working out a scheme of fusing the work of the O. T. A. with that of the O. E. A.," be published in the Proceedings of the O. E. A. and referred to the incoming Board of Directors, to be reported on at the next meeting of this Association.

The following is the report:

Your Special Committee appointed to act in conjunction with a Committee of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance met on Friday, December 24th, 1915, at the Central Y. M. C. A. Building in Toronto.

Present: Messrs. Fraser, Kerr, Ward, Hogarth and Doolittle.

The object of the meeting being to discuss and arrange if possible, a union of the O. T. A. and the O. E. A. as desirable that interests with so much in common should be closely allied and united, it was pointed out that in union and co-operation there is strength.

In the informal discussion which took place the feasibility of uniting the two bodies and the practical difficulties in the way were mentioned and the following features were emphasized:

1. The effort to unite all those in the Province who are interested in education is the aim which the O. E. A. should endeavour to carry out.

2. The efforts which will be required to keep up the work of the O. T. A. in the larger Association might not receive that

close attention which it requires as it was considered that it would require a permanent President and Secretary.

3. The question of the finances.

To meet the first difficulty two suggestions were offered:

1st. To get the Board of Directors of the O. E. A. to assume all the duties of the O. E. A.

2nd. To ask the O. T. A. to become a General Section of the O. E. A.

For specialized work like that of the O. T. A., special men are needed. If the O. T. A. were a General Section it would consist of those who were specially interested in that work.

3rd. In the matter of the finances it was urged that the O. E. A. would have a much larger membership by the affiliation and thus have an increase in funds. It was also suggested that perhaps the Board of Directors could get the Department of Education to assist in the publication of an educational journal for the whole Province. The following resolution was passed unanimously:

"That this joint committee recommends to the Board of Directors of the O. E. A. that it assume the work of the O. T. A. and that at the annual meeting for the election of officers of the O. E. A., the Board nominate and appoint a standing committee to deal with such matters as legislation, publishing and advising, this committee to carry out the purposes and aims for which the O. T. A. has stood, and that the members of this committee hold office for two years, half of the committee to retire each year."

E. A. DOOLITTLE, *Chairman.*

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During the intervals between the addresses, the Double Trio from Perth Ave. School, Toronto, under the direction of Miss A. J. Hunter, sang "Sweet and Low" and "The Bugle Song;" and the School Choir from the same school, under the direction of Miss Mae E. Skilling, sang "Ye Mariners of England," "The Mill" and "The Recessional," making very pleasing additions to the programme.

The President declared the meeting adjourned.

After the adjournment, a reception was held in the Exhibition Room by the members of the Board of Education and of the Advisory Industrial Committee.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26.

The Association met in the Auditorium, Central Technical School at 8 o'clock p.m. President Fraser in the chair.

Rev. Dr. Chown conducted the devotional exercises by reading from the Forty-ninth Psalm and leading in prayer.

Hon. Mr. Justice Riddell addressed the Association on "Canada, Then and Now." (See page 103.)

Mr. Thomas Adams addressed the Association on "The Conservation of Life and Natural Resources in Canada." (See page 116.)

Moved by R. W. Doan, seconded by William Scott, B.A.—  
(1) That the next meeting of the Ontario Educational Association be held during the Easter holidays in 1917, in Toronto, and that the decision as to the local place of meeting be left to the Board of Directors. Carried.

(2) That the thanks of this meeting be, and are hereby tendered to Hon. Dr. Pyne, Mr. William Houston, Mr. W. O. McTaggart, Hon. Mr. Justice Riddell and Mr. Thomas Adams, for the inspiring addresses, which they have delivered during this Convention: to President Fraser for the courteous and able manner in which he has discharged the duties of President: to Principal McKay for the practical interest he has shown in making arrangements for this meeting: to the Board of Education and to the Advisory Industrial Committee for their liberality in giving the Association the use of the Central Technical School for this meeting.

The President-elect, Dr. Hutton, put this motion and declared it carried.

During the evening a double quartette from Williamson Road School, directed by Principal Bryce, sang "Robin Adair" and "Stars of the Summer Night," and the School choir from Earl Grey School, under the direction of Miss W. Londry, sang the two following songs, "The Village Chorister" and "My Own Canadian Home."



The singing of these children made a most delightful impression upon the audience.

Moved by James L. Hughes, LL.D., seconded by Rev. James Buchanan, That the Ontario Educational Association heartily appreciates the action of the Ontario Government in establishing Children's Courts and in passing the Auxiliary Classes Act; and strongly recommends that steps be taken as early as possible to awaken public sentiment throughout Ontario to a recognition of the imperative need for a sufficient number of institutions on large farms to provide for the training of the feeble-minded of the Province; and that a Committee consisting of Mr. J. E. Farewell, K.C., of the Trustees Section, Mr. J. H. Putman, of the Inspector's Section; and Mr. James L. Hughes of the Physical Training and School Hygiene Section, be appointed to secure the co-operation of the Government of Ontario in preparing circulars of information in regard to this important matter, and in sending them to the newspapers, the Teachers' Associations, the Inspectors of Schools, the ministers of all religious denominations, the Mayors of cities and towns, and the County Councils; and to request the Department of Agriculture to instruct its county representatives and the Conductors of Women's Institutes to do all they can to make the facts in regard to the number of feeble-minded known to the people so that they may understand the duty of the Province and of the municipalities to the unfortunate mental defectives themselves, and the need for taking definite steps for the reduction of the number of feeble-minded, and for the protection of the whole community." Carried.

Moved by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, seconded by Rev. James Buchanan, That the Superannuation Committee be given power to add to its numbers at its discretion. Carried.

The Treasurer, Mr. Ward, presented his report. The report was received. See page 84.

The Auditors' report was read by Mr. Dearness and was received and adopted.

The meeting closed after the singing of "God Save the King."

After the adjournment the officers of the Canadian Branch of the League of Empire held Reception, which was largely attended and thoroughly enjoyed by the members of the Association.

*MINUTES OF THE ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT*

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26TH, 1916.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30.

Mrs. H. S. Strathy, President, in the chair.

Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

President, Mrs. Strathy, then delivered her President's Address, which was listened to with very great interest. (See page 127.)

Mr. Henry Ward, B.A., presented the "Report on the Constitution," which was received and considered clause by clause and adopted. (See page 19.)

The election of officers resulted as follows:

*President* ..... Mr. Hugh A. Beaton, Walkerville.

*Vice-President* .... Miss Louise N. Currie, Toronto.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto

Mr. Beaton, the president elect, was introduced to the meeting and assumed the chair.

On motion of Secretary Fraser, seconded by Mr. Geo. A. Cole, an expression of appreciation of the way in which the President had conducted the work of the Department and presided over its meetings, was passed and Mrs. Strathy was requested to allow her very excellent paper to be published in the Report of the Proceedings. It is no wonder that the Canadian boys who have mothers, sisters, wives or sweethearts holding views such as those expressed by Mrs. Strathy should acquit themselves as heroes on the battle-line.

The meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER.

*Secretary.*

THE CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS OF THE  
ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT  
OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

*Article 1.—Name.*

This Department shall be styled "The Elementary Department of the Ontario Educational Association."

*Article 2.—Sections.*

The Sections of the Elementary Department shall be as follows:—

- (a) The Public School Section.
- (b) The Kindergarten Section.
- (c) The Home Science Section.
- (d) The Manual Arts Section.
- (e) The Physical Training and Hygiene Section.
- (f) The Reformed Spelling Section.
- (g) Ontario Teachers' Alliance Section.
- (h) League of Empire Section.

*Article 3.—Membership.*

All members of the sections of this Department shall be members of this Department.

*Article 4.—Officers.*

Sec. 1. The officers of the Department shall be: a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary-Treasurer, and the representative of each section to the Board of Directors. These shall constitute the Executive Committee of the Department.

Sec. 2. No person shall be elected to an office in the Department who is not a member of the Association.

Sec. 3. The President, the Vice-President and the Secretary-Treasurer shall perform such duties as by custom devolve upon such officers.



Sec. 4. The Executive Committee shall hold its regular meetings (a) on or near Thanksgiving Day; (b) at the written request of four members; (c) whenever the President deems a meeting to be necessary. Four members of the Executive Committee shall form a quorum.

Sec. 5. The Executive Committee shall have power to fill vacancies in its own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Department; and shall make all necessary arrangements for the meetings of the Department.

Sec. 6. The officers shall be elected by open nomination and open vote at the annual meeting of the Department, and shall remain in office until the close of the next annual meeting or meetings.

*Article 5.—Meetings.*

Sec. 1. Each year, there shall be at least one meeting of the Elementary Department. At the time of a meeting of this Department, no meeting of any Section of this Department may be held.

Sec. 2. Fifteen members shall form a quorum at any meeting.

*Article 6.—Amendments to the Constitution.*

This Constitution may be amended at any session of the Department by the unanimous consent of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote, provided written notice has been given thereof at a previous session.

*By-laws and Rules of Order.*

The by-laws and rules of order of the Ontario Educational Association shall apply to this Department.

This Constitution shall take effect when adopted by the Department.

Adopted, Wednesday, April 26th, 1916.

# MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH, 1916.

The Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in the Auditorium of the Central Technical School, Toronto.

The first hour was given to registering members and delegates.

At 10.15 a.m. the meeting was called to order, Mr. J. A. Underhill, President, in the chair.

Mr. A. E. Bryson read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Chas. G. Fraser was elected Minute-Secretary.

The minutes, as printed in last year's Report of the Proceedings, were taken as read, and confirmed.

The following communications of the year were presented:

1. From the following teachers' institutes contributing to the Public School Section of the O. E. A.:—

Algoma (E) .....	\$4 00	Northumberland and	
Brant .....	5 00	Durham (III) .....	2 00
Carleton (W) .....	5 00	Oxford .....	5 00
Essex (S) .....	2 00	Renfrew (N) .....	5 00
Frontenac (S) .....	5 00	St. Catharines .....	2 00
Grey (W) .....	5 00	Simcoe (E) .....	5 00
Halton .....	5 00	Timiskaming .....	5 00
Hastings (N) .....	3 00	Thunder Bay .....	5 00
Kent (W) .....	5 00	Toronto .....	70 00
Lanark (W) .....	2 00	Wellington (N) .....	5 00
Leeds (W) .....	5 00	Waterloo .....	5 00
London .....	5 00		
Muskoka .....	2 00	Total .....	\$165 00

2. From the County Institutes:—The correspondence for the year and the resolutions of provincial importance passed thereat.

3. From the officials of the various departments and sections of the O. E. A., 1915-16.

4. From the Prime Minister, the Minister of Education, and the various Officials of the Department of Education for 1915-16.

5. The correspondence of the Committee on Superannuation.

6. The correspondence with the officers and members of the Executive of the Public School Section of the O. E. A.

These communications were received and referred to the proper committees.

By resolution the President was asked to appoint a Committee on Resolutions and to announce it at the close of the morning session.

The report of the Secretary was presented showing the work of the Executive for the year. The report was adopted. (See page 201.)

Principal Reid, of Owen Sound, Chairman of the Public School Department's Superannuation Committee, reported the present situation of the question, that had for so long engaged the attention of the Association and of the Department of Education. Delay for another year had been caused very largely by the teachers themselves many of whom wanted better terms than were in the Bill of last year. Many new to the profession were not aware of the ends sought to be reached by giving it greater permanency. He said that the principle of superannuation for teachers was well established. The greatest question for any civilized people to face after that of security was the problem of the education of the young, and in connection with this problem, was the problem of providing for every school competent, trained teachers. In facing this problem nearly every country of Europe had adopted pension schemes for teachers; several of the provinces have good working schemes, among these Quebec. Japan has one of the best schemes in the world, while Australia and New Zealand had recently adopted pension funds to which the teachers had to contribute.

The Bill of last year had met with objection because of the minimum of forty years' experience demanded before pensions could be reached. A new Bill had been prepared that had in view the removal of objectionable features, while it required a larger percentage from the teachers it provided for earlier retirement. The teachers should give the new Bill their whole-hearted approval as a fair scheme to all, and the most progressive educational measure attempted in this Province in many years.

The report was received and a general discussion followed.



It was moved by T. A. Reid, seconded by Miss Winters, That this Department of the O. E. A. expresses its appreciation of the cordial support of the principle of superannuation and of the Bill of 1915, by so many of the young teachers of the Province; and expresses the hope that the amended Bill which offers so much earlier benefits and other advantageous features, with but a very small increase in the contributions, will receive even stronger support from all teachers, as a measure fair to the profession and fair to the Province—a measure that has for its object the benefit of our educational system as well as the benefit of the teaching profession. Carried.

The report of the Treasurer was then presented showing:—

#### RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand from 1914-15 .....	\$92 50
Members' Fees .....	254 00
From Teachers' Institutes .....	155 00
<hr/>	
Total . . . . .	\$501 50

#### EXPENDITURES.

Members' Fees to General Association .....	\$104 00
Railway Agent—Viseing Certificates .....	58 50
Secretary Fraser .....	100 00
Treasurer Speirs .....	30 00
Minute Secretary .....	10 00
Postage, Stationery, etc .....	40 75
Expenses of Superannuation Committee .....	11 65
Printing . . . . .	25 00
<hr/>	
Total . . . . .	\$379 90
Balance on hand .....	121 60

The report was received and referred to the auditors.

Mr. S. Nethercott and Mr. Geo. A. Cole, were appointed auditors.

On behalf of the Legislative Committee, Secretary Fraser reported that the efforts of the committee during the year had

been directed almost entirely towards the work of securing a Teachers' Superannuation Scheme for the Province and he was pleased to be able to report that a new draft of last year's Bill had been presented to the Legislature and given its first reading. There had been several modifications in the measure. The contributions of those who die in the service are to have their contributions returned and provision is made whereby a teacher may retire after thirty years of service on an allowance which shall be an actuarial equivalent for their claims. The five per cent. required for the maintenance of the fund is to be paid by the teachers and the Government—each contributing two and a half per cent. of the teacher's salary.

The report was received.

On behalf of the Pupils' Report Card Committee Inspector Ward presented a report, recommending:

(1) That the Public School Section of the O. E. A. heartily endorses the preparation and use throughout the Province of the Monthly Report Card and also a Continuous Record Card for each pupil.

(2) That Report and Record Cards similar to those submitted be printed and distributed throughout the Province and teachers are urged to give them a trial.

(3) That, as our Present Daily Registers are not suitable as books of original entry for such records, suggestions be made to the Department of Education regarding a proper form for such entries.

(4) That a Committee be appointed to carry on this work through our executive and with such co-operation as may be possible with Inspectors and others, and that a report be presented at our next annual meeting.

The report of the Committee was received and adopted and the nomination of the Committee suggested was left to the President.

Inspector A. A. Jordon then discussed the subject "Entrance History" and gave reasons why, in his opinion, the subject of History should be placed on Part II of the Entrance Examination.

After some discussion, the proposal was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The President announced the following Committees:—

“ Pupils’ Report Cards ” Committee:—Mr. H. Ward, Toronto, Miss E. Abram, Chatham, Mr. R. G. Elliott, Toronto.

“ Resolutions ” Committee:—Mr. Martin Kerr, Hamilton, Mr. John H. Garner, Fort William, Miss E. Abram, Chatham, Miss C. A. Winters, Pembroke, Miss Nettie Feeney, Madoc, Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock, Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound, and Secretary Fraser, *ex-officio*.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

##### *Joint Meeting.*

#### PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION—TEACHERS’ ALLIANCE SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15 o’clock by President Underhill.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, President, Ontario Teachers’ Alliance, was invited to the chair and greeted the audience.

Mr. William Scott, B.A., Principal of the Normal School, presented an excellent paper on “ Esprit de Corps. ” (See page 299.)

President Falconer then delivered an address on the subject: “ A Look Forward. ”

On motion of Mr. Martin Kerr, seconded by Mr. John Rogers, an expression of appreciation of President Falconer’s address was passed and the President was asked, as a great favour, if he could supply the secretary with an outline of his address to be included in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 137.)

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26TH, 1916.

##### *Joint Meeting.*

#### PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION, INSPECTORS’ SECTION, TRUSTEES’ DEPARTMENT.

After the closing of the meeting of the Elementary Department, the joint meeting of the Public School Section, Inspectors’ Section and the Trustees’ Department was called to order at 11 o’clock.



President Underhill in the chair.

John Brown, Jr., M.D., International Secretary Health and Recreation Department of the Young Men's Christian Associations, gave a most helpful address on: "Organized Playgrounds." (a) "The Significance of Play." (See page 144.) (b) "Play in the School." (See page 151.) (c) "The Best Use of the School Playground," (see page 155), which by resolution appears in the Report of the Proceedings.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSIONS.

The afternoon sessions took the form of three conferences of: Rural School Teachers, Primary Teachers, Public School Principals.

#### THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Rural School Teachers met in conference in Room B-E-1, the largest room at our disposal, and although many chairs were brought in, filling all the aisles, many persons had to stand.

Mr. J. W. Brown, Guelph, occupied the chair and called the meeting to order.

Mr. W. F. Young, Wilsonville, was elected Minute Secretary.

Mr. G. Alex. Gemeroy, of Winchester, read a very excellent paper on "The Teacher as a Social Leader," telling of his experience in a rural school and showing his methods of giving the children pleasure—in the school, on the playground and elsewhere. In the discussion which followed the condition of rural schools was referred to and it was felt that trustees should be required to have the school floors scrubbed at least once a month.

Dr. Dandeno, Inspector of Elementary Agricultural Classes for Ontario presented a very excellent plan for carrying on school gardens so as to exert the greatest influence on a community and his remarks lead to an interesting discussion.

By resolution Mr. Gemeroy's paper and Dr. Dandeno's are to appear in the Report of the Proceedings. (See pages 175 and 182.)

The following representatives of the Rural Teachers were elected to the Executive of the Public School Section: —

Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen (Huron County).

Mr. E. T. Vardon, Weston (York County).

Mr. W. F. Young, Wilsonville (Norfolk County).

The meeting then adjourned.

#### PRIMARY TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Primary Teachers met in conference in Room B-E-2.

The meeting was called to order at 2.20.

Mr. J. A. Short, Swansea, in the chair.

Mr. J. A. Painter, Manual Training Instructor, Normal School, Hamilton, gave a very excellent address on "Hand Work in the Junior Classes," illustrating his address with a very fine collection of specimens of work of pupils in the various ways in which junior pupils find expression to their conceptions.

Mrs. Margaret H. Kerr, Primary Teacher, Queen Victoria School, Toronto, read a carefully prepared paper on "The Unusual Child," which causes so much work and anxiety in every class. (See page 162.)

Miss Isabelle Richardson, Primary Teacher, Toronto Normal Model School, gave a suggestive paper on "Busy Work for Junior Pupils." (See page 170.)

The meeting then adjourned.

#### PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE.

The Principals and Kindergartners met in conference in the Auditorium.

Meeting was called to order at 2.20.

Mr. John Munro, B.A., of Hamilton, in the chair.

Miss Lillian B. Harding, the Kindergartner in the Charge of the Kindergarten-Primary Class in Withrow Avenue School, Toronto, gave an interesting paper on Kindergarten-Primary Work which lead to a spirited discussion regarding this new feature of Public School Work. (See page 188.)

Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Principal, Earl Kitchener School, Hamilton, read a most suggestive paper on "Schools and Schoolmasters after the War." (See page 194.)

Mr. Wm. Houston, M.A., Chairman of the Board of Education, Toronto, gave a very interesting address on "The Place and Power of the Principal of a Public School," impressing the points that, subject to the Regulations of the Department, the Principal is supreme in the classification, organization and management of his school, deciding who shall be in each class, and also the arrangement of his staff. He made a very eloquent plea for the child that is unusually bright and claimed that he should be promoted to the next class as soon as he is ready, during the term, so that he may be ready for High School work, and language study, at the age of twelve years.

A vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Houston.

The meeting then adjourned and was followed by the meeting of the Teachers' Alliance Section.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 27TH, 1916.

Meeting was called to order at 9.30, President Underhill in the chair.

Mr. Geo. A. Cole conducted the opening exercises, reading a portion of Scripture and leading in prayer.

The minutes for the meetings of Tuesday and Wednesday were read and confirmed.

A communication was presented from Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education for Ontario, regretting that urgent duties prevented him from being present, as he had expected.

The Report of the Committee on Resolutions was then presented, recommending the adoption of Resolutions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 15, 16, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 34, of the Resolutions of 1915, and the amendment of number 5 and 7. Carried.

Resolution 5 was amended so as to read:—That we disapprove of the inclusion in our Readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English; and that a committee be appointed to make a list of the objectionable expressions and lessons to present to the Department.

Resolution 7 was amended so as to read:—That our Geographies be supplied with more and better maps; and that the Geography text should be of a convenient size so that pupils



could read with convenience—a companion atlas being supplied for map reference.

These amendments were carried.

In regard to the matter of history which had been referred to the committee on Tuesday, the following resolution was recommended:

That if there be any final Entrance Examination on any subject in Part I, it should be a Provincial Examination and set by the Department of Education and required from all candidates. Lost.

Mr. Martin Kerr, the Vice-President, was then called to the chair and after a few words of greeting called upon President Underhill who read the President's Address, a very practical paper. (See page 129.)

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

*President* . . . . Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.

*Vice-President* Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock.

*Past President* Mr. J. A. Underhill, Fort William.

*Secretary* . . . . Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto

*Treasurer* . . . . Mr. R. M. Speirs, Toronto.

Three representatives of the Rural Teachers were appointed by the rural teachers on Wednesday afternoon, and the President was asked to appoint three representatives for the Principals and three for the Primary Teachers to have a place on the Executive of the Public School Section.

The following Principals were appointed:—

Mr. John Munro, B.A., Hamilton.

Mr. W. George Ward, Niagara Falls.

Miss C. A. Winters, Pembroke.

The following Primary Teachers were appointed:—

Miss Lillian B. Harding, Toronto.

Miss Elizabeth Conor, Kingston.

Miss Isabelle Richardson, Toronto.

The usual allowances were passed.

The meeting then adjourned.

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

*Joint Meeting.*

## PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION, REFORMED SPELLING SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15.

President Underhill in the chair.

Dr. DeWitt C. Croissant, Prof. of English in the State University of Kansas, gave an address on "English as a World Language."

By resolution the Doctor was thanked for his very able address and he was requested to favor the Association with a copy for the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 290.)

Prof. J. Gibson Hume, then read a very carefully prepared paper on "The Sophistries of the German Misleaders." This was followed by a very animated discussion and a resolution of appreciation of his able presentation of the causes of the great world struggle now in progress. (See page 209.)

The meeting then adjourned after singing the National Anthem.

## MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT,

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH.

The Kindergarten Department of the O.E.A. met in the Central Technical School, Toronto.

The President, Miss H. E. Heakes, presiding.

The session opened with the singing of the Kindergarten hymn. After the reading of the minutes the President welcomed the members and introduced Miss Mary Adair, Normal School, Philadelphia, who gave most interesting and instructive addresses on "Permanent Features and Values of the Kindergarten," and "Educational Playthings and the Froebel Gifts," which were followed by animated discussions. (See page 219.)

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

An address by Miss Adair on "Continuity in Education" followed by a discussion.

Miss Adair's addresses were replete with illustrated material and games which made them doubly interesting.

## WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26TH.

At 9.00 a.m., general meeting of the Elementary Department, was held in the Auditorium, at which Miss Louise N. Currie, Supervisor of Kindergartens, Toronto, was elected Vice-President. (See pages 18-20.)

At 10.30 a.m., Miss Adair spoke on "The True Meaning of Kindergarten Principles, Appliances and Atmosphere in the Grade Work," with many charming illustration by stories. See page 219. This was followed by a discussion led by Miss Louise N. Currie, and joined in by Inspectors Putnam and Slein of Ottawa, Principal Scott, of Toronto Normal School, and Mr. W. Houston, Chairman of Toronto Board of Education.

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint meeting with Principals' Conference, at which Miss Lillian Harding, Toronto, gave a paper on the "Kindergarten-Primary Work." (See page 188.)

## THURSDAY, APRIL 27TH.

After the opening exercise the Treasurer's report was read and showed a balance of \$57.05. The election of officers took place with the following results:—

<i>President</i> .....	Miss H. E. Heakes, Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Miss C. Brenton, London.
<i>Director</i> .....	Miss L. B. Harding, Toronto.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Miss L. Williams, 96 Jameson Avenue, Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Miss MacIntyre, Miss Currie, Miss Baker, Miss Gerrard, Miss Buttery, Miss McGil- livray, Miss Henderson, Miss Rankin, Miss Pettit.

Mrs. A. M. Huestis, President of Toronto Local Council of Women, gave a very interesting address on "An Outlook of Women's Work." See page 229. Then followed a very interesting and instructive address by Prof. Frederick Tracy, B.A., Ph.D., Toronto University, on the "Little Child and the Moral Order." See page 231.



## AFTERNOON SESSION.

A discussion on Home and School Clubs participated in by Dr. Caroline Brown, Mrs. A. Courtice, Miss L. B. Harding and Miss Clara Brenton. This discussion was very inspiring and much appreciated, and brought forth remarks by representatives of different Mothers' Clubs in the city. The meeting then adjourned. (See page 238.)

E. RANKIN,  
*Secretary.*

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## MINUTES OF THE HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

APRIL 26TH.

The Home Science Section held its thirteenth annual meeting in Room C-S-10, Central Technical School, on Wednesday, April 26th, with the Acting President, Miss Ryley, in the chair.

The minutes of the last session were read and confirmed, and the Treasurer's report was read and adopted.

Miss Neville was appointed Press Reporter and Misses Crowe and Cunningham were made auditors. A Nominating Committee was formed consisting of Misses Nesbitt, Laird, Robertson, Hills and White.

An interesting address on "The Work of a Dietitian" was then given by Acting President Miss Ryley. This address will be printed in the Annual Report. (See page 244.)

Miss A. Edina Robertson followed with a paper on "The Teaching of Clothing and Textiles in Public and High Schools."

Miss Robertson made her topic extremely interesting through the use of diagrams, samples and various materials, etc. This paper will also be found in the Annual Report. (See page 260.)

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

Owing to illness Dr. A. Orr Hastings was unable to be present, and his address was regretfully cancelled.

The meeting was called to order at 2.45.

An interesting and instructive talk on "Housewifery Work," was given by Miss Jessie J. Hills. She described the stages by

which Housewifery Work, which was begun on a small scale in a four roomed apartment, had arrived at its present permanent address, 16 Ord Street, Toronto. There are three departments in a Housewifery Centre, i.e., Housekeeping, Housewifery Work and Sewing. An explanation was given of the work in each department. Special emphasis is laid in all departments on Personal Hygiene and the development of hand power is aimed at as the greatest aid in developing brain power. Miss Hills closed with a cordial invitation to all to visit her school.

A brief discussion followed Miss Hills' paper. Dr. Merchant described similar centres for Housewifery Work which he had seen in Liverpool, England, and agreed with Miss Hills in regard to the importance of the work being done.

A very interesting and instructive address was then given by Dr. F. W. Merchant, Director of Technical and Industrial Education, Toronto, on "Some Tendencies in Household Science." In his opening remarks Dr. Merchant said that till recently there had been failure to recognize that the industries of women are important, and that the relation of the home to the spiritual and physical well-being of the community are most vital.

This paper will be found in full in the printed Report of the Proceedings. (See page 250.)

A lively discussion followed Dr. Merchant's address.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 27TH.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30 a.m.

The Nominating Committee brought in their report which was unanimously adopted.

The officers for 1916-17 are as follows:—

<i>President</i> .....	Miss C. E. Elliott.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Miss L. Ockley.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Miss M. Powell, Central Technical School.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Miss Ryley, Miss Sutherland, Miss Robertson, Miss Neville, Miss Greenwood, Miss Foote, Mrs. Gausby.

It was moved by Miss Laird, seconded by Miss Ockley, that the Secretary send a note to Miss Sutherland to express to her the sympathy of the Section in the death of her mother.

Miss Lampkin then gave a talk on "Phases of Work in the Industrial Department of the Young Women's Christian Association, Toronto." Miss Lampkin expressed the opinion that in her work might be found a field where Household Science graduates may serve; that "to serve" is the keynote of success as a life of public service to humanity calls for all the sympathy and experience that can be offered and demands an intelligent interest in the welfare of working women. Miss Lampkin gave a clear and comprehensive account of the work, surroundings, etc., of business girls working in factories, and told what has been accomplished in improving their conditions and helping them in various ways.

Mrs. F. H. Torrington followed with an interesting account of the aims and work of the National Council of Women. The keynote of Mrs. Torrington's address was co-operation—among churches, the Government, the people, in fact along all lines. She discussed the part which women should play in this co-operation and described many of the reforms, etc., which have already been accomplished or will be in the future.

Miss Clara Libby Carson then gave a talk on "Settlement work as a Force in Family Life." She told of the first Settlement work in Toronto in what is now well known as Evangelia House, and gave an interesting description of the social and educational work carried on in a Settlement. The Settlement House supplements the school, the hospital, the church, in fact all things which go towards family life. The basis of the work is "friendship" and the settlement co-operates with the people to help them to make good in life in a rounded way.

Meeting adjourned.

MRS. E. L. GAUSBY,

*Secretary-Treasurer.*



*MINUTES OF MANUAL ARTS SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 25.

The Manual Arts Section held its sessions in Room D-W-7 on the third floor.

The first session opened at 2.00 p.m. with President T. W. Kidd, B.A., in the chair.

The minutes for 1915 were read by the Secretary and adopted without change.

The President, in his address, welcomed the members of the Section to what he believed would be a profitable programme. He referred with gratitude to the Education Department for the encouragement that had been given Art in the Province, but felt that the course might further be improved by giving more attention to the application of Art to the things that we use. The present course bears too much in the direction of the professional artist rather than to the application of patterns and design in the material and fabrics of construction and industry. The design originated by the student should be applied to the plate, lampshade, cushion cover, centre piece or other related material.

Miss Eleanor M. Shepherd, M.A., of New York, gave an address on "Colour Harmony and its Application," in which she emphasized the importance of the eye by means of which the influence of environment reaches the individual. The eye sees only colour, and for this reason colour is very important and must be studied and made systematic just as the sounds in music had been. Commercially, much was being done in the application of colour harmony in the dyes of high grade textiles. The schools of the United States emphasize the practical side of Art in colour harmony, in dress, house decoration, furniture, etc.

Miss Shepherd brought with her quite a large exhibit of considerable merit which remained in view during the remaining sessions of the Section and which was a source of satisfaction and stimulus to all who studied them. A limited time was devoted to the discussion of this address.

Concluding the afternoon session, the following were appointed as Nominating Committee:—Mr. Mercer, Mr. Adams, Mr. Newlands, Mr. Seavey.

## WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

This session was entirely practical in its nature. Quite a large number gathered in the wood-finishing room of the Technical School to observe a demonstration of the preparation of stains, staining of different kinds of woods, and the methods of finishing that might follow the staining. Mr. Culverwell who gave the demonstration cheerfully answered any questions that were asked. A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Culverwell.

This was followed by a tour of the Shops Department under the direction of Mr. J. W. McBean, B.A., Director of Shopwork. The visitors were divided into groups, each of which was taken in charge by one of the teachers of this Department.

The extent of the equipment and the facilities provided for teaching the various practical branches, impressed themselves on all. The power plant, and the heating and ventilating systems were the admiration of all the visitors.

## THURSDAY MORNING SESSION.

There was keen interest in the address and work of Mr. G. L. Johnston, B.A., who, with easel, mounted paper, brush and paints, demonstrated his method of representing "still life in water colours." He began with light pencil outlines of certain fruits; then applied the shading, following this, when dry, with the natural colouring of the fruit. The results obtained well justified the method adopted.

In brief but natural order, Mr. Alfred Howell, A.R.C.A., Director of Art and Design in the Central Technical School, summarized the progress of modelling and sculpture from ancient to recent times. Perhaps not since the organization of the Manual Arts Section had there been so unique but absorbingly interesting work portrayed as that by Mr. Howell in modelling in clay the head from so striking a figure as that of the man whom he used as a model. The long flowing beard, the prominent nose, the distinct cheek bones, the deep set eyes, the massive eyebrows, the full forehead, and the shaggy hair made a fit model for any artist. The onlookers could not but be impressed with the value of modelling as a means of close observation. The discerning eyes of the artist played constantly for over an hour from the living model to the work in hand, while

his hands were ever busy adding and manipulating the plastic material, bringing the work rapidly into the similitude of the model.

Could teachers but induce their pupils to observe one-quarter so minutely, the difficulties in teaching form, colour, light and shade, proportion and design, would be largely solved.

Appreciative comments and a hearty vote of thanks were given to Mr. Howell for this splendid study.

After the report of the Nominating Committee was received and adopted, the Section was guided by Mr. Howell through the various Art rooms, to observe the materials, equipment, and facilities for doing the work as well as to see considerable of the finished product.

This tour was much appreciated, and while nothing of a material nature was carried away, yet many suggestive ideas gathered here will find a place in many Art classes in the Province.

It is significant that in this and other recent conventions, teachers have the keen interest in those contributors to the programmes, who give little place to bookworn theories but who bring their materials with them and state and demonstrate their methods with their materials. Achievements cannot be contradicted nor are they easily forgotten.

The sessions of this Section were generally helpful and fairly well attended. Doubtless there was loss of attendance due to the difficulty in finding the meeting place of the Section on the third floor.

The officers for the ensuing year are as follows:—

<i>Hon. President</i> .....	T. W. Kidd.
<i>President</i> .....	R. N. Shortill.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	S. W. Perry.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	S. B. Hatch.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Mrs. Mayberry, Miss Giles, A. J. Painter, T. W. Kidd.

The Treasurer's report showed a balance on hand at the close of the 1915 session of \$22.86.

EDWARD FAW,  
*Secretary-Treasurer.*

## *MINUTES OF PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH.

The Section met in Room B-W-4, Central Technical School. In the absence of the President the Honorary President, Dr. James L. Hughes occupied the chair. On account of the lateness in commencing, the address from the chair was dispensed with and Dr. Fred S. Minns was called on for his paper "Some Features of School Medical Inspection." The paper was most interesting showing the work being done to raise the standard of health among the school children. It was moved and carried that the paper be published in the Annual Report of the Association, also recommended by Dr. James L. Hughes that it be published in some magazine. (See page 278.)

Miss M. Hotson gave a very interesting address on the "Medical Inspection Work at Ailsa Craig," which gave an idea of the excellent work being carried on under difficulties in a rural community.

Seymour W. Collings, Physical Director, Toronto Technical School, read a paper on "(1) Relationship of the Physical to the Mental. (2) To What Extent is the Physical Responsible for the Retardation of Pupils. (3) The Chief Purpose of Physical Exercise in our Schools and is Course Prescribed and followed the best to secure the Desired Aim." A most interesting discussion followed, led by Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Dr. James L. Hughes and Mr. Fred J. Smith. (See page 269.)

It was moved and carried that a vote of thanks be extended to Mr. Fred J. Smith for the excellent work and great interest he has shown in the Society.

In the afternoon at the combined meeting of Inspectors', Trustees' and Physical Training Sections, Dr. Helen MacMurchy read a paper "Are We Making any Progress in Dealing with the Mental Defectives?" This was discussed by Dr. C. K. Clarke, Superintendent of Toronto General Hospital, Dr. Clarence M. Hincks, and Dr. J. H. Putman, Senior Inspector, Ottawa Public School. The discussion showed that a keen interest was being taken in this great problem.



The election of officers resulted as follows:—

<i>Honorary President</i> .....	Dr. James L. Hughes.
<i>President</i> .....	Dr. Fred S. Minns.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Mrs. S. C. Wilson.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	S. W. Collings.
<i>Director</i> .....	Dr. Helen MacMurchy.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Miss M. Hotson, M. T. Gra- ham, Inspector Elliott, A. J. Laughton.

## MINUTES OF THE SIMPLIFIED SPELLING SECTION.

26TH APRIL.

The meeting was held in Room B. E. 5 on Wednesday afternoon. Mr. J. S. Lane, B.A., occupied the chair until the arrival of the President.

The minutes were read and approved. A message was read from Sir Frederick Pollock, LL.D., D.C.L., President of the League of Empire, expressing pleasure that Canadian teachers had taken up spelling reform and pointing out that the war had emphasized the importance of forwarding the movement in its favor. A letter from the British Secretary reported the results of experiments in teaching reading to beginners with primers printed in reformed spelling. In the reading itself and transition to the old spelling a saving of five months in nineteen had been demonstrated.

Officers were elected as follows:—

<i>President</i> .....	Prof. L. E. Horning, M.A., Ph.D.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	John Dearness, M.A., London, Ont.
<i>Corresponding Secretary</i> .....	Alexander McQueen, London, Ont.
<i>Committee</i> .....	Stephen Martin, B.A., Prof. D. R. Keys, W. M. Metford, Wm. Scott, B.A., J. S. Lane, B.A., Robert Alexander, W. J. Summerby, I.P.S.

The title of Dr. Horning's presidential address was "Some Curiosities of English Speech and Spelling." In an historical review of Old and Middle English he showed how the spelling had broken away from the current of speech and had either stranded and been left behind or led by the vagaries of foren printers into odd by-ways.

The Secretary, Mr. John Dearness, reviewed the progress of the year in Spelling Reform in Great Britain and the United States. (See page 286.)

Dr. D. C. Croissant described details of the methods adopted in some of the States and more particularly in some of the universities to promote the simplification of spelling. (See page 288.)

#### APRIL 27TH.

At a joint meeting with the Public School Section held in the Auditorium, Dr. D. C. Croissant, Professor of English in the University of Kansas, delivered an address on "English as a World Language." His arguments were discussed and strongly endorsed by Mr. William Houston, M.A., Prof. D. R. Keys, and Prof. J. G. Hume. He received a very cordial vote of thanks. (See page 290.)

#### A MESSAGE FROM SIR FREDERICK POLLOCK, LL.D., D.C.L., PRESIDENT OF THE LEAGUE OF EMPIRE.

I am glad to hear that Canadian teachers are taking up Spelling Reform. It is more important than ever that citizens of friendly and allied nations who wish to acquire our language should not find gratuitous difficulties in their way. The conventional spelling of English, fixed by the usage of printers about the beginning of the eighteenth century and little altered since, is far worse than that of any other generally known tongue. We have various signs for one sound, various sounds denoted by one sign, many arbitrary variations, and not a few perverse spellings for which there is no better historical warrant than the blundering pedantry of sixteenth century scribes who knew just enough Latin and Greek to go wrong with; and we have no apt or uniform signs for several specially English sounds.

The time has come for a revolution, and the first thing needful is to break down the fictitious sanctity of a tradition which

has not even the merit of being ancient. It is easy to find objections to any particular scheme of reform, and it must take some time to arrive at a general agreement, but any practicable change must be for the better.

(Signed) F. POLLOCK.

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### *MINUTES OF THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE SECTION.*

The annual meeting of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance was held at four o'clock on Wednesday, April 25th, 1916, in the Auditorium of the Technical School, Toronto, with the President, Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., in the chair.

The minutes of annual meeting held April 3rd, 1915, were read and approved.

The President outlined the work done during the year as follows:—The Joint Committee which was appointed to consider the fusion of the O.T.A. with the O.E.A. met in the forenoon of Dec. 24th, 1915, and discussed ways and means to accomplish its object, but as some members did not know the aims of the O.T.A., no action could be taken; so Mr. E. A. Doolittle, of Orillia, convener of the Committee, recommended that the work be carried on throughout the year. This had been done.

Messrs. Cole and Ward moved that the offices of Secretary and Treasurer be combined. Carried.

The Treasurer's report was read and Mr. Ward recommended that it be received and handed on to the auditors.

Messrs. Ward and Curtis moved that the auditors be Messrs. W. F. Moore and M. Kerr. Carried.

Messrs. Cole and Munro moved a hearty vote of thanks to Principal Scott for his very excellent address on "Esprit de Corps Among Teachers," and that the address be published in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association. This was carried enthusiastically. (See page 299.)

Mr. Ward recommended that ten thousand extra copies be printed for distribution to Teachers' Institutes and Training Schools.

This was seconded by Mr. Dearness, who suggested that the President, Mr. Ward, and the Secretary form a committee to arrange for the publication of the number of copies specified.

Messrs. Ward and Scott moved that the officers for the incoming year remain the same as last year, with the name of Mr. J. W. Rogers, the Treasurer, transferred to the Executive. Carried.

Messrs. Dearness and Ward moved that the resolution presented by Mr. Cole at the Executive meeting held previous to the public meeting be carried out. It is as follows:—"That the President appoint a committee of the O.T.A. to meet with one of the O.E.A. to present the claims of the O.T.A. before the incoming board of directors of the O.E.A. and ask for a continuation of the Joint Committee throughout the year to carry on the work outlined. Carried.

Messrs. Norris and Scott moved that the President be our representative on the Board of the O.E.A.

The meeting then adjourned.

MARGARET MESTON,  
*Secretary, O.T.A.*

#### EXECUTIVE, 1916-17.

*President*—E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Hamilton Collegiate Institute.

*First Vice-President*—L. E. Embree, M.A., LL.D., Ex-Principal Jarvis Coll. Inst.

*Second Vice-President*—J. Dearness, M.A., LL.D., Vice-Principal Normal School, London.

*Secretary-Treasurer*—Miss Margaret Meston, 146 Markland St., Hamilton.

W. Scott, B.A., Principal Normal School, Toronto.

Principal C. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

David Young, Principal Public Schools, Guelph.

W. E. Tilley, M.A., Ph.D., Public School Inspector, Bowmanville.

Miss Ada Burger, Principal Hodgson School, Toronto.

W. E. Foster, Principal Alexandra School, Brantford.

G. A. Cole, Principal Public School Orillia.

C. E. Kelly, Principal King George School, Hamilton.

H. Ward, B.A., Public School Inspector, Toronto.

John Rogers, Principal St. Dominic's School, Lindsay.

Joseph White Rogers, M.A., Public School Inspector, Toronto.



*MINUTES OF THE LEAGUE OF THE EMPIRE SECTION.*

The League of the Empire Section met in Room B. W. S. on Wednesday. The President, Principal Hutton occupied the chair.

At 11 a.m. a joint meeting was held with the English and History Section, at which Dr. J. A. Macdonald gave a most inspiring address on the "World Conflict of Ideas." (See page 383.)

The meeting adjourned at 12.30 p.m.

At 3 p.m. the meeting was called to order and Principal Hutton gave an interesting address on "Italy, France and Greece in Relation to the War." (See page 306.)

Dr. J. L. Hughes then addressed the meeting on "Faith in Self, Canada, Our Empire, and God."

In the absence of Mr. H. J. Baker, the Hon. Secretary for Ontario, his report showing much progress, was read by Dr. J. L. Hughes.

The Hon. Secretary for Canada, Mrs. H. S. Strathy, presented her report. (See page 315.)

It was moved by Dr. Hughes, seconded by Mrs. Nasmith, that both these reports be adopted.

Moved by Mrs. Van Koughnet, seconded by Mrs. Dewart, that the officers for the ensuing year be as follows:—

*Chairman for Canada* ..... Principal Hutton, LL.D., Toronto.

*Vice-Presidents for Canada* ... Col. G. T. Denison, Toronto,  
Jas. L. Hughes, LL.D.,  
Toronto.

*Hon. Secretary for Canada* ... Mrs. H. S. Strathy, 71 Queen's  
Park, Toronto.

*Hon. Secretary for Ontario* ... Miss F. M. Standish, 643  
Euclid Ave., Toronto.

*Hon. Treasurer* ..... Henry Baker, Esq., 33 Farn-  
ham Ave., Toronto.

*Council for Ontario:* The Lieut. Governor of Ontario and Lady Hendrie, The Premier of Ontario and Mrs. Hearst, His Grace Archbishop McNeil, The Bishop of Toronto, Hon. R. A. Pyne, LL.D., and Mrs. Pyne, Hon. I. B. Lucas, Hon. W. J. Hanna, Hon. T. W. McGarry, Hon. Frank Cochrane, Sir Adam Beck, H. S. Strathy, Esq., Sir John Willison, Dean Pakenham, Lady Falconbridge, President Falconer, Major Leonard, C. C. James, Esq., C.M.G., Mrs. Arthur Van Koughnet, Mr. and Mrs. Hartley Dewart, Lady White, Mrs. George Nasmith, H. M. Mowat, Esq., W. K. George, Esq., Principal Scott, Prof. Kylie, R. W. Doan, Esq.

*Executive Committee:* Mrs. H. S. Strathy, Mr. and Mrs. H. H. Dewart, Prof. Kylie, Mr. R. W. Doan, Principal Hutton, Miss Jean Graham, Principal Colbeck, Dean Pakenham, Mrs. A. Van Koughnet, Miss J. Griffin, Miss Walsh, Dr. J. L. Hughes, Mrs. George Nasmith, Miss L. K. Wooley, Prof. George Smith, Mr. Vincent Massey, Miss L. Curry, Mr. H. J. Baker, Miss F. M. Standish.

FLORENCE M. STANDISH,

*Hon. Secretary.*

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## MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH, 1916.

The College and Secondary Schools Department met in Room B. N. 9 in the Central Technical School, at 2.15 p.m., the Chairman, Dr. McDougall, of Ottawa, presiding.

The minutes of the previous year's meeting were read and approved.

Mr. W. Nichol was appointed Press Reporter for the Department.

Dr. McDougall then gave an address on "The Relation of the State to Education." (See page 317.)

Rev. Prof. Ballantyne followed with a most excellent paper on the "Life and Work of Dr. Tassie." (See page 326.)

Capt. Wallace, of the Overseas Co. of the University of Toronto Officers Training Co., spoke briefly of the nature of the Co.

G. M. James, B.A., Principal of Deseronto High School, read a paper on "The Present Status of Reading, Writing, and Spelling in our High School Courses of Study."

The meeting then adjourned.

### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26TH.

The second session of the College and Secondary Department was convened at 2.30.

Prof. Alexander gave a verbal report regarding the Committee on the Curriculum of Secondary Schools, of which he was convener. He stated that the members were too busy mostly with military duties, to meet and work. On motion the Committee was discontinued.

The election of officers was then proceeded with and the following were elected:—

<i>Chairman</i> .....	Prof. W. J. Alexander, M.A., Ph.D.
<i>Vice-Chairman</i> .....	Mr. F. P. Gavin, B.A.
<i>Secretary</i> .....	W. J. Longheed, M.A., Jarvis Street Collegiate Institute. Toronto.
<i>Directors</i> .....	Representatives from the various Sections.

It was moved and seconded that the address of the Chairman, Dr. McDougall, on "Status of Education," and the paper by Prof. Ballantyne be published in the minutes of the Association. Carried.

It was moved and seconded that a committee be appointed by the Chairman to prepare for publication, a memorial statement on the life and work of the late Dr. Peter Campbell McGregor, of Ottawa, formerly Principal of Almonte High School.

The committee selected by the Chairman were: Dr. Strang, of Goderich, Mr. R. C. Rose, of Smith's Falls, and Miss Marty, of Ottawa.

Prof. Laing then spoke on recent proposed changes in the curriculum for Entrance into the School of Practical Science.

Part I is to consist of English, History, Mathematics, and any three of Greek, Latin, French, German, and Science.

Part II is to consist of Honor Math. and Pass Standing in Honor English, and in one of Honor Greek, Latin, French or German.

After Prof. Laing's address the matter was discussed by the members present including Mr. Hogarth, of Hamilton, Dr. McDougall, of Ottawa, Mr. Rose, of Smith's Falls, Mr. Keith, of Parkdale, Mr. Smith, of the Technical High School, Mr. Levan, of Woodstock, and Mr. Gavin, of Windsor.

It was moved by Mr. Gavin and seconded by Mr. Keith, that this Department endorse the proposed changes with Physics added to the Honor Option, to facilitate the organization of the work in the High Schools. Carried.

Mr. R. A. A. Johnston then gave an address on "School Museums," outlining the previous work of mineral collections and the present experiment of sending out collections of small mammals.

Prof. C. T. Currelly followed with a general discussion of the subject, which was very interesting and instructive.

Mr. G. A. Cornish took up the discussion, particularly in connection with the use of mineral specimens in Geography lessons.

The Chairman expressed the appreciation of those present, of the addresses given by Mr. Johnston and Prof. Currelly.

The Department then adjourned.

G. W. KEITH, B.A.,

*Secretary.*



*MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.*

The thirtieth annual meeting of this section opened at 10 a.m. on April 25th. Owing to the absence through illness of Miss M. E. T. Addison, the President, Professor J. H. Cameron, Vice-President, took the chair.

The opening address was given by Professor J. Squair, who spoke of his imminent retirement from the teaching profession. Complimentary remarks were made by Professor A. E. Lang, Mr. Hogarth, Mr. Lane and others. (See page 336.)

A letter from Mr. Anglin, Secretary of the Matriculation Board, in reply to the report of the Committee appointed last year on the French matriculation papers of 1914 was then read.

Professor R. Keith Hicks, of Queen's University, then read a paper on "The First Month in Beginning French." Discussion followed and the meeting adjourned. (See page 340.)

## APRIL 26TH.

The meeting opened at 10 a.m. On motion of Miss Hillock, seconded by Mr. Lane, it was resolved, that this Association place on record its deep sense of loss in the death of one of its most esteemed members, Miss E. M. Balmer. In her passing the teaching profession of Ontario has suffered an irreparable loss; for in the brilliance of her scholarship, in her rare gifts as a teacher, and in the charm of her personality, Miss Balmer possessed unusual distinction. To her noble pioneer work as one of the first women students in the University of Toronto the higher education of women in Canada owes an inestimable debt. In the work of this Association she always showed a deep interest and to those who year after year have enjoyed the inspiration of her bright enthusiasm and gracious presence, the sense of loss is profound.

Professor Saint-Elme de Champ addressed the Association in French on "The France of To-day."

The Chairman appointed Miss S. E. Marty, Miss Hillock and Mr. Lane as a Nominating Committee, and Miss A. E. Marty and Mr. Lane as an Auditing Committee.

The meeting adjourned.

APRIL 27TH.

The meeting opened at 10 a.m.

The Nominating Committee brought in the following recommendation for officers for 1916-1917.

<i>President</i> .....	Professor J. Home Cameron.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Mr. W. H. Williams, Berlin. —
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Professor J. Squair.
<i>Committee</i> .....	Miss M. I. Williams, Peter-
	boro, Miss R. I. Strang, —
	Arnprior, Miss M. I. Whyte, —
	Wingham, Professor R.
	Keith Hicks, Kingston, Mr.
	F. C. A. Jeanneret, Toronto, —
	Mr. Irwin, Toronto.

On motion of Mr. Lane, the recommendation was adopted by the Association.

The Auditing Committee reported that the books and accounts were in proper condition with a balance on hand of \$227.01.

Mr. Hogarth moved and Miss A. E. Marty seconded, That the members of the Modern Language Section of the O.E.A. desire to express their regret at the absence through illness of the President, Miss M. E. T. Addison, and beg to assure her of their sympathy and their earnest wish for a speedy recovery.

The motion was adopted.

Professor Ledoux gave a very interesting address in French on "Belgium."

Professor Fairley read a paper on Gottfried Keller's "Der Grüne Heinrich." (See page 347.)

After some discussion the meeting adjourned.

*MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.*

The Natural Science Section of the O.E.A. met in the Chemical Lecture Room of the Central Technical School, Toronto, on Wednesday, April 26th, 1916, at 9 a.m.

President Gavin was in the chair.

The minutes of the 1915 meeting were read and confirmed. The Treasurer's report was read and adopted.

In his address, President Gavin made some introductory remarks on the ignorance prevailing among Ontario teachers of advances in Education in other countries. In particular the numerous experiments along educational lines in the United States were unknown in Canada. His set address on "The Salt Industry of Ontario." (See page 358.)

Dr. J. B. Dandeno in his address on "Agricultural Classes in High Schools," pointed out that the work will be especially successful when undertaken by a Science Specialist, who in addition, has the training provided at the O.A.C. The work has come to stay and will no doubt be a part of the regular High School programme as soon as conditions warrant. In the American universities credit is given for work in Agriculture on the same basis as for other subjects and the time is coming when the Canadian Universities will do likewise. To conduct classes in Agriculture is not more difficult than to conduct classes in Elementary Science, so long as equipment is provided, as all the equipment is provided from the Federal grant, there need be no scarcity in this respect. The chief difficulty at present is in securing teachers and too rapid advancement must not be expected. The time is coming when Agriculture will be a subject required for entrance to Normal Schools and the High Schools will be required to provide the preparatory course. The teacher should get into touch with the American Institutions offering aid to teachers by way of charts, slides, etc. One of these institutions is the International Harvester Co., of Chicago.

Mr. C. W. Nash, Biologist, Provincial Museum, spoke on "Wild Life About Home." On a wide range of animal life, he gave much original information, the result of careful naturalistic work extending over many years.

On motion of Dr. Cosens, seconded by T. J. Ivey, a vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Nash.

Dr. Burton's lecture was postponed until Thursday.

The Section met again at 9 a.m. on Thursday. Mr. Geo. A. Carefoot gave an address on "Mistakes We Science Teachers Make and Some Suggestions." He suggested that teachers select good apparatus, see that the Board purchase it, plan a systematic arrangement for it and always store it in good order. He strongly urged that Principals must be made aware of the fact that a Science teacher must have spaces on the time-table for the preparation of apparatus for demonstrations, that teachers use experiments which demonstrate directly, not indirectly, the facts to be illustrated, that apparatus and necessary diagrams be clearly visible in all parts of the rooms, that coloured crayons be used freely for diagrams. He thought that pupils should not be writing notes during demonstration experiments, that they do not make enough use of text-books, and that reference books should be placed convenient for ready use and that work should be given to make their use necessary. Not as many excursions were planned as were desirable; on the other hand the teacher should not depend on excursions for material for class study; it was better to purchase Biology material from dealers. For pupils' experiments in Physics and Chemistry he recommended that the number be fewer and that none be dangerous.

Mrs. Anna B. Comstock, Assistant Professor in Nature Study in Cornell University, gave an address on "The Relation of Nature Study to Science." (See page 367.)

On motion of Geo. A. Cornish, seconded by Dr. J. L. Hughes, supported also by Mr. Dearness, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered Mrs. Comstock.

Miss Durand, Secretary of the Society for the Protection of Birds, addressed the Section for a few minutes.

The Section adjourned to Room 43 of the Physics Building, University of Toronto. Here Dr. E. F. Burton had prepared a number of interesting experiments on Colloidal solutions. He gave a historical view of the subject, but, on account of the lateness of the hour, decided not to go into detail with regard to his own recent researches.

On motion of Dr. Cosens, seconded by T. J. Ivey, a vote of thanks was tendered Dr. Burton.



The election of officers resulted as follows:—

<i>Hon. President</i> .....	Mrs. A. B. Comstock.
<i>President</i> .....	T. J. Ivey.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Geo. A. Carefoot.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Arthur Smith, 52 Parkway Avenue.
<i>Committee</i> .....	J. B. Turner, J. R. Moore, M. H. Ayers, Dr. J. B. Dandeno, L. Might, P. MacLauren.

ARTHUR SMITH,  
*Secretary.*

### MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

The Classical Section of the O.E.A. met in Room B. E. I, Technical High School Building, at 10 a.m. on Wednesday, April 26th. The President, Prof. Kirkwood, of Trinity University, took the chair.

After the registration of members, the minutes of last meeting were read and adopted. Then, following a brief speech by the President, Prof Robertson presented to the meeting the report of the Committee on the Curriculum. The discussion that followed showed the members to be about evenly divided; some approving, others disapproving the changes. Next, Prof. N. W. DeWitt read a paper dealing with the Proposal for a Latin Reader. This subject was evidently one of great and general interest, many members speaking on the question. Finally, on motion of Mr. Kerr, of Berlin, a Committee was appointed to deal with the matter, to consist of Prof DeWitt, Prof. G. W. Johnston, and Mr. F. C. Colbeck; said Committee to have power to add to their number. The hour was now so late that it was decided to defer Mr. D. A. Glassey's paper till the next day.

The following day, Thursday, April 27th, at 9.30, the Section met again. Mr. Glassey gave an interesting and helpful explanation of his method of dealing with Latin Prose Composition.

Election of Officers for the ensuing year then took place with the following result:—

<i>Hon. President</i> .....	Prof. W. S. Milner, University College.
<i>President</i> .....	H. W. Bryan, M.A., Renfrew.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Prof. N. W. DeWitt, Victoria College.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Chas. L. Barnes, Jarvis Collegiate Institute.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Prof. G. Oswald Smith, Prof. G. W. Johnston, Prof. Sissons, Mr. F. C. Colbeck, Mr. D. A. Glassey, Mr. P. F. Munro, Mr. A. E. Coombs, Miss I. K. Cowan.

Representative on Board of Directors, the Sec.-Treas. (*ex-officio*).

The Section then moved to another room in order to enjoy Prof. Gordon Laing's illustrated lecture on "Roman Africa." The illustrations were surprisingly clear and full of information, while the style of the lecture was most entertaining.

The last item of the programme was a very scholarly lecture on "The Religion of Mithras," by Prof. S. H. Hooke, of Victoria University. This brilliant address marked the close of an unusually enjoyable and helpful meeting of the Classical Section. The Section then adjourned for the year.

CHAS. L. BARNES,  
*Secretary-Treasurer.*

## MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

APRIL 25TH.

The registration of members at 9.30 a.m. and reading of the minutes and Treasurer's report at 9.45 a.m. were followed by the programme. Owing to accident, the material of the President's address had been destroyed; Mr. Wightman, therefore,

craved the indulgence of the members, and called on Mr. R. C. Rose to introduce the discussion on "A Plea for a Recognized Order of Propositions in Geometry." Mr. Rose showed how the science had originated as a means of solving practical problems among the Egyptians, had been systematized by the philosophic Greeks, and had in recent years been revised to meet the demand for a more practical treatment, resulting in a variety of proposition arrangement, which has some disadvantages. A recognized order would aid the scholar in noting authorities, and in securing brevity. A spirited discussion followed.

Mr. S. H. Henry reviewed Mr. J. G. Crawford's new Text in Algebra. The criticism in general was decidedly favourable. The text of experience is still to be applied.

Mr. Wilson Taylor, after referring in touching manner to changes wrought by time in the personelle of the membership, and to the new standard of values which the war has brought to all Canadians, and to himself personally, expressed a vigorous protest against the over-centralization of educational administration, and against the excessive mass of educational subject matter. Mr. Taylor advocated a marked reduction in the subject matter, the fostering of power to do individual thinking, and above all the will to render service to humanity.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### APRIL 26TH.

Following the further registration of members, the officers for the ensuing year were elected as follows:—

<i>Hon. President</i> .....	J. A. Houston, M.A.
<i>President</i> .....	W. J. Lougheed, M.A.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	R. C. Rose, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Charles Auld, B.A.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	S. H. Henry, M.A., R. N. Merritt, B.A., W. W. Nichol, M.A., W. L. Spring, B.A., B. W. Clarke, B.A.
<i>Representative to General Board</i> of Directors .....	Charles Auld, B.A., Tillson- burg.

Dr. Findlay, of McMaster University, in a scholarly paper on the "Theory of Limits," showed the extensive application of the idea of "Limits" to all departments of mathematical science.

Previous to Mr. Merritt's arrival, the question "What can the Department of Mathematics and Physics contribute to make the Faculty Entrance Course a one-year course?" was discussed by several members. Mr. Merritt advocated the division of the present subjects into two alternative courses, with an extension of the elective privilege. In the discussion following, it was pointed out, that, in view of the wide range of subjects which the holders of such certificates are expected to teach, proficiency in these subjects might rightfully be expected. As the matter is not a live issue, no action was taken.

A vote of thanks was tendered to all contributing to the programme.

The meeting adjourned to permit attendance upon Dr. Burton's lecture in the Physics Building, Toronto University.

CHARLES AULD,

*Secretary.*

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## MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH.

The English and History Section of the O.E.A. held its tenth annual meeting in the Library of the Central Technical School, on Tuesday morning, April 25th., with the President, Miss E. J. Guest, M.A., in the chair.

On motion, the minutes of last meeting were taken as read. Prof. Keys was appointed Press Representative.

The President, Miss E. J. Guest, M.A., then gave a very interesting address on "The High School Teacher and Community Leadership," in which she pointed out some ways in which the teacher may serve the community other than by teaching. A brief discussion followed in which Mr. James, Mrs. Byers and Prof. Keys took part.



Prof. Alexander then gave an instructive talk on "The Shakespeare Anniversary," which was greatly appreciated by all present.

This was followed by a paper on "The Teaching of History in the High Schools," by Prof. W. E. Macpherson. The speaker dealt mainly with some of the recent tendencies in the teaching of History. An interesting discussion followed, Prof. Alexander, Prof. M. W. Wallace, Dr. Strang, Miss Spence, Miss Guest and others taking part. (See page 374.)

### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26TH.

The meeting was opened at 10 a.m. with the President, Miss E. J. Guest, in the chair.

The first item of business was the election of officers, which resulted as follows:—

<i>President</i> .....	Prof. M. W. Wallace.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Jas. Keillor, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	J. F. Van Every, B.A., 13 Wells Street, Toronto.
<i>Director</i> .....	Prof. W. E. Macpherson.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Miss E. J. Guest, M.A., Miss M. N. Burriss, B.A., Miss Kathleen McVean, B.A., Mr. I. M. Levan, B.A.

A very interesting and practical address was then given by Dr. Geo. H. Locke, Chief Librarian, Toronto Public Library, on "How the Public Library may Co-operate with the High School."

The rest of the forenoon was devoted to a joint meeting with the League of Empire. The President of the League, Prof. Hutton, presided, and a very able address was delivered by Dr. J. A. MacDonald, of the *Toronto Globe*, on "The World Conflict of Ideas." (See page 383.)

The meeting was then adjourned.

JAS. KEILLOR,  
*Secretary-Treasurer.*

*MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.*

APRIL 25TH.

The Commercial Section of the O.E.A. met in Room D. W. 11, Central Technical School, on the above date. Owing to the absence of the President, Mr. W. J. O'Brien, and of the Vice-President, Miss G. M. Waterworth, the chair was occupied by Mr. Wm. Ward.

The minutes of the previous meetings were read and confirmed.

The following committees were then appointed:

Nominating Committee:—Miss Blyth, Miss Stone and Mr. Ward.

Auditing Committee:—Miss Brill, Mrs. Ford-Firby.

Mr. Ward read a paper prepared by Mr. D. M. Walker, Niagara Falls, on the subject "Should Commercial Geography be Included in the Papers prepared by the Commercial Section." A live discussion then followed, and the question of having a type-writing paper prepared, was also raised. It was decided to take no action at present. (See page 399.)

Mr. A. J. Walker then gave a very interesting paper on "Should an Essay be required before a Permanent Commercial Specialist Certificate is Granted." He showed that the value obtained far outweighs the cost of the labour.

APRIL 26TH.

The meeting was opened at 9.30 a.m. with the President, Mr. W. J. O'Brien, in the chair. The programme proceeded as follows:—

An address by the President in which he pointed out that there is an increasing demand among business men for Collegiate Institute and High School trained office help, and that the Commercial Department in our schools should have every possible chance to give commercial pupils a thorough, practical business education.

The officers for the ensuing year were then elected as follows:

<i>President</i> .....	Mr T. W. Oates, London.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Miss G. M. Waterworth, Orillia.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Miss A. B. Stone, St. Thomas.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Miss S. Blyth, Miss M. L. Brill, Miss E. A. Power, Miss E. R. Cragg, Mr. A. F. Birchard, Mr. D. M. Clark.

Representative to the College and High School Department, and to the Board of Directors, Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Paed, Toronto.

A paper prepared by Mr. T. W. Oates, London, and read by Mrs. Ford-Firby, was very interesting, and the topic was discussed by Mr. W. J. O'Brien, Mr. A. J. Walker, Miss Waterworth and Mr. Ward. (See page 396.)

The subject "How Much Business Law can be Satisfactorily Covered in a Two Years' Course," was then discussed by Mr. W. J. O'Brien, Miss Waterworth, Mr. Ward, Mr. Clark and Mr. Birchard. All agreed that the present outline was enough.

Miss G. M. Waterworth spoke very ably on the subject "Do We Attempt Too Much in Bookkeeping." Miss Waterworth thought the course ought to be simplified, and that time could be spent more profitably if we prepared pupils for the exact work they are expected to do in the ordinary office position.

The meeting then adjourned.

ESTELLA R. CRAGG,  
*Secretary.*

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## MINUTES OF THE CONTINUATION SECTION.

APRIL 25TH, 1916.

Meeting began at 1.15 p.m. with President Miss S. O'Leary in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read by the Secretary and adopted.

Messrs. J. M. Smith and J. M. Simpson were appointed auditors.

Mr. C. G. Yorke was appointed Press Representative.

The President, Miss O'Leary, followed with an address on "School Journals." She stated that we should study school journals for new methods, books reviews and advertisements.

Mr. D. Stevenson advocated caution in allowing errors appearing therein.

Prof. W. E. MacPherson, B.A., LL.B., of Queen's University, then gave an address on "Teaching the War." (See page 404.)

Moved by Mr. E. A. Dickinson and seconded by Mr. J. G. Gordon, that a vote of thanks be tendered Mr. MacPherson. Carried.

T. M. Cayley moved that a copy of Mr. MacPherson's address be incorporated in the Proceedings of the O.E.A. Carried.

Mr. S. W. Perry followed with an excellent address on picture study for "High School Curriculum," a full account of which we expect will be inserted in the Proceedings of O.E.A.

A vote of thanks was tendered Mr. Perry on motion of Mr. A. W. Cameron and Mr. C. G. Yorke. Meeting then adjourned.

#### APRIL 26TH, 1916.

Meeting was called to order at 10 a.m.

A paper on Arithmetic was given by Mr. A. W. Cameron. He especially emphasized accuracy in the subject. A short discussion followed.

At 10.30 there was a joint meeting with the Natural Science Section where Dr. Dandenò explained the management of Agricultural classes in High Schools.

1.30 p.m. Meeting opened with an address by Inspector G. K. Mills on "What is necessary in the Science Course."

An address was then given by Mr. A. W. Burt, B.A., for which a vote of thanks was tendered him by the Section.

Moved by Mr. A. W. Cameron, seconded by Mr. Cayley, that the Continuation Section next year begin on Tuesday and continue until Wednesday or rather that it begin at 9 o'clock on the first day of the Convention and continue until four of the second day.



Moved by Mr. Cameron and seconded by Miss Hull, that a Nomination Committee of the President, Secretary and Mr. Cayley be appointed. Carried.

Meeting adjourned at 4.30.

APRIL 27TH, 1916.

Dr. Pakenham gave an address on "Some Problems of the Continuation School," an account of which will appear in the Proceedings of the O.E.A. (See page 410.)

Mr. Smith advocated fewer subjects and more thorough work.

Report of Nominating Committee was then accepted en block on motion of Messrs. Smith and Cameron.

Moved by Miss B. Hull, That the resolution of last year regarding three teacher Continuation Schools be presented to the Department by the Secretary Treasurer. Seconded by D. T. Smith. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Stevenson, seconded by Mr. Cameron, That the Secretary be paid \$5 in addition to his regular expenses. Carried.

Officers for 1916-17:—

<i>President</i> .....	Mr. A. W. Cameron.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	Mr. J. M. Simpson.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	Mr. C. G. Yorke.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Mr. Smith, Miss Stark.

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### MINUTES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

The annual meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the O.E.A. was held in the Technical School at 10 a.m., Wednesday, April 26th, 1916, President T. A. Kirkconnell, B.A., in the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The Secretary-Treasurer, E. E. Snider, B.A., Port Hope, presented the financial report which showed a credit balance of forty-one cents.

After a few words of welcome by the Chairman, Inspector J. A. Houston, M.A., spoke of the good things which he had seen in his visits to the schools.

He paid a well-deserved compliment to the earnestness and faithful work of the teachers and then referred to various methods of Physical Culture, Languages, Mathematics, etc., which appeared to be commendable and which might be used with advantage.

He also spoke briefly on the general tone of the schools, and the relations which exist amongst the members of the staffs and between teachers and pupils.

The President then appointed a Nominating Committee consisting of C. A. Mayberry, A. W. Burk, J. D. Dickson, A. E. Coombes, J. D. Christie and I. M. Levan.

P. W. Brown, B.A., Principal of North Bay Collegiate Institute, introduced the subject, "Influence of Tobacco on High School Students." He quoted from Dr. Matthew Woods, member of American Medical Association, Judge B. Lindsay, Denver, and Lieut.-Col. J. R. Spier, to show that the use of tobacco and especially of cigarettes is injurious to pupils both from a moral and an intellectual standpoint. He showed from his own experience with boys that those who are tobacco users do not succeed in their school course and made a strong plea that teachers do not set an example before their pupils which will lead to their failure in intellectual work.

G. H. Reed, M.A., B.Pæd., Principal of North Toronto High School confined himself to that phase of smoking to which the student is addicted, the cigarette. The cigarette was of recent introduction into North America, dating from the year 1876. Since that time it had grown to a production of hundreds of millions in Canada every year, not including importations. It is a new situation, affecting the welfare of our young boys who form the habit of using them from the instinct of imitation of elders and from a desire to be smart.

To show its injurious effects, he cited the fatal results when one-half of the nicotine contained in one cigarette was given in solution to a frog, and when a hypodermic injection of nicotine was made under the skin of a cat.

It must certainly be injurious to a growing boy, far more so than would be the case from smoking a pipe, as in the latter

case, the nicotine in the mouth is volatilized and 60 per cent. of nicotine passes off in smoke. But in inhaling, a common practice in smoking a cigarette, the nicotine passes over the vascular tissues in the mouth, throat, bronchial tubes, the air-cells of the lungs, which almost instantly absorbs the poison in the blood-circulation, and causes irregular action of the heart.

From the lungs the nerve-centres and the brain are affected. As a result there often arise catarrh, impaired vision and weakened heart.

It also affects the mental powers of the boy, impairing his ability to apply himself steadily to mental work.

The cigarette boy is generally a poor scholar, and is given to dreaming over his work. In athletics he is easily winded and loses his ambition for manly sports.

The boy's moral nature, too, is affected for in his promiscuous smoking with disregard for the customs and wishes of ladies and gentlemen, he loses personal self-respect.

The cigarette boy is apt to become untruthful, deceptive and weak in will. He becomes unpatriotic in principle for he violates the law of home, school and State. He is notoriously hard to discipline.

In conclusion he quoted the following as a summary of his case against the cigarette:—

“I am not much of a mathematician, said the cigarette, but I can *add* nervous troubles to a boy, I can subtract from his physical energy, I can *multiply* his aches and pains, I can *divide* his mental powers, I can take *interest* from his work, and *discount* his chances for success.”

J. D. Dickson, B.A., Principal of Niagara Falls Collegiate Institute ably supported the other speakers in the injurious effects of tobacco upon High School students, giving instances of such from his experience as a High School teacher.

The next subject “Truancy, its Cause and Cure,” was taken up in a thorough way by G. F. Rogers, B.A., Principal of London Collegiate.

He said that in the overloaded curriculum in the general course of the High School, pupils are overdosed with work and get a dislike of school.

Another cause of truancy was the fact that pupils get out of their circumscribed constituency when they leave their public school. He felt that the cure of this evil was eternal vigilance on the part of the Principal. Communicating with the parent as soon as possible about the boy's absence was also very effective. Much good could be done by educating the parent to believe that the boy should be under strict supervision of either parent or teachers.

Moreover, a modifying of the curriculum to make the school attractive would largely remove the cause of truancy.

W. E. Rand, B.A., of Arnprior, also took up the subject of truancy. He said he could heartily support the views presented by Mr. Rogers. In fact, Mr. Rogers had so covered the subject that it left him very little to add to the discussion.

The report of the Nominating Committee was then presented and adopted.

The officers elected for the next year were the following:—

<i>President</i> .....	Mr. T. Murray, B.A., Principal Owen Sound Collegiate.
<i>Secretary</i> .....	G. H. Reed, M.A., North Toronto High School.
<i>Councillors</i> .....	Mr. John Dolan, B.A., Oshawa, Mr. W. B. Weidenhammer, B.A., Oakville, Mr. G. F. Rogers, B.A., London.

Time did not suffice to complete the programme of subjects to be taken up in the Section.

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## MINUTES OF SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

THURSDAY, APRIL 27, 1916.

The annual meeting was held in Room B. N. 8 of the Central Technical School, Toronto, with the President, Henry Conn, B.A., in the chair.



In the absence of Mr. R. W. Murray, the Secretary, it was moved by Mr. F. L. Michell, M.A., and seconded by Mr. W. I. Chisholm, M.A., that J. W. Marshall, Secretary of the Inspectors' Section, act as Secretary of this Department also. Carried.

On motion of Messrs. J. E. Tom and F. L. Michell, Mr. W. I. Chisholm was appointed press representative.

The President delivered his official address on the subject "Retardation and How to Prevent it." It was decided that this address be printed in the Proceedings. Dr. Putman and Messrs. Tom, Chisholm and Stevens took part in discussion. (See page 421.)

A series of four excellent addresses on the subject of "Educational Waste" were delivered by Dr. J. H. Putman, of Ottawa, Prof. F. E. Coombs, of Toronto, Dr. S. A. Morgan, of Hamilton, and Inspector T. W. Standing, of Brantford.

Prof. Coombs summed up his conclusions in the six headings given below and supported these by statistics in the form of percentages of time actually spent in the average of 192 schools:

1. Poor teaching.
2. Ill-planned and ill-organized work—particularly seat-work.
3. Unjustifiable stress of the three R's, and the consequent neglect of other subjects.
4. Poor classification and organization of classes.
5. Over-worked teachers.
6. Failure to give teachers specific instruction along certain specific lines after they have fully realized the problem.

The election of officers for the Department resulted as follows:—

*President* ..... Wm. Prendergast, Toronto.  
*Vice-President* ..... N. McDougall, Petrolea.  
*Secretary-Treasurer* ..... Geo. G. McNab, Renfrew.

*Re* the Geography Reader for Form III, it was moved by Dr. Putman and seconded by Mr. Michell, "That the Department of Education be notified that in the opinion of the Public and Separate School Inspectors and the members of the Training Section that the present Geography Reader which with some slight modifications would serve fairly well for Fourth Book Classes is wholly unsuitable for Third Book Classes; that the

Department be asked to provide a more suitable book or books and that the Inspectors and Training men be consulted before such books are authorized; and that the Secretaries of the two Sections be a Committee to bring this before the Department of Education.

JOHN W. MARSHALL,  
*Secretary.*

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### *MINUTES OF INSPECTORS' SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 25, 1916.

Annual meeting held in Room B. N. 8, Central Technical School, Toronto.

Members met for registration 10.00 to 10.30 a.m.

At 10.30 the Secretary read a letter from the President, W. C. Froats, M.A., stating that owing to illness he could not be present.

Mr. F. L. Michell, M.A., was appointed to preside for the day.

Dr. D. A. Maxwell, B.A., LL.B., opened with prayer.

Messrs. McNab, Stevens and Dr. Maxwell were appointed a committee to draw up resolutions of condolence with the families of the late Inspectors, Welburn Atkin and William Johnston, M.A., LL.B.

It was moved by G. G. McNab, M.A., and seconded by W. H. Stevens, B.A., "That the Public and Separate School Inspectors in convention assembled desire to place on record their appreciation of the long and faithful services of the late Inspectors Welburn Atkin and William Johnston, in the cause of Education in their respective inspectorates and in Ontario generally and to express sympathy with the relatives in their great bereavement. We request the Secretary of this Department to forward this resolution to each of the families." Carried.

On motion of Messrs. J. H. Smith, of Chatham, and G. G. McNab, the minutes of last annual meeting were adopted.

A communication from Dr. A. H. U. Colquhoun, Deputy Minister of Education, acknowledging receipt of group photographs of Inspectors at Guelph for himself and Hon. Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education.

Another communication from Dr. Colquhoun acknowledged receipt of resolution passed by the Inspectors at Guelph favouring superannuation.

A letter from Major-General Sir Sam. Hughes acknowledged receipt of \$920.00 contributed by School Inspectors to Machine Gun Fund and stated that he would be pleased to designate the particular Ontario overseas battalion to which the Inspectors' Machine Gun should be assigned.

Inspectors Edwards, Chapman and Clarke were appointed as Nominating Committee.

Henry Conn, B.A., was appointed press reporter.

Inspectors Paterson, A. L. Campbell and T. A. Craig were appointed Committee on Resolutions.

Inspectors J. H. Smith, of Chatham and J. F. Power were appointed auditors.

Dr. J. H. Putman was appointed to act with a member of the Training Section to arrange for a dinner.

J. H. Smith, B.A., of Stratford, read an excellent paper on "The Geography Reader for Form III," characterizing it as "encyclopaedic, beyond the child and failing in interest." Discussion followed by Dr. Putman, C. B. Edwards, C. W. Mulloy and others all agreeing that the Minister should be memorialized to change that book.

On motion of Messrs. J. Elgin Tom and C. B. Edwards, a committee consisting of Dr. Putman and Messrs. Smith, Stratford, Power and Reid was appointed to draw up a memorial to the Education Department *re* the Geography Reader. This committee was joined by another from the Training Section and their report was adopted by the Supervising and Training Department.

Mr. G. G. McNab, M.A., reported that his committee had presented the request for an Educational Gazette to the Department. He read the reply stating that "It is the desire of the Minister to begin the publication of such a periodical during the autumn of the present year, and subject to unforeseen contingencies, this policy will be carried out."

Dr. J. B. Dandeno, Director of Elementary Agriculture gave a very practical address, stating:—

That Agriculture may be taught either with a school garden or without, but in Public Schools, Nature Study should be included;

That the Department proposes to prepare a manual but not with a view to making the work bookish;

That the classes in a rural school should be divided into two groups both for Agriculture and for Nature Study;

That as far as reported about half the schools are conducting school gardens and half home projects;

That County and Township Trustees' Associations should be general;

That the International Harvester Association will loan charts to Inspectors for a week, the only cost being express;

That these express charges or the cost of trees for planting in the school grounds may be paid out of Agriculture grants.

Some discussion followed regarding lack of harmony between the promoters of school fairs and those of school gardens.

A joint meeting was held with the Trustees' Department and the Physical Training and School Hygiene Section where Dr. Helen MacMurchy gave an interesting and instructive address, "The Hygiene of the Subnormal Child."

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 26, 1916.

Mr. McNab was appointed to preside.

The election of officers resulted as follows, viz.:—

*President*\* ..... John W. Marshall, B.A., Welland.  
*Secretary-Treasurer* .... J. H. Putman, B.A., D.Paed., Ottawa  
*Director* ..... J. F. Power, M.A., Toronto.

Mr. J. Elgin Tom addressed the Section on "The Necessity for Tablets in Primary Reading." He urgently pressed the case for the approval of Tablets.

Moved by Mr. Tom and seconded by Mr. R. A. Paterson, "That the Inspectors' Section request the Minister to approve the use of printed tablets as supplementary in the Primer Classes. Carried.

Prof. Peter Sandiford, M.Sc., Ph.D., read an excellent paper on "Uniformity vs. Diversity in Educational Administration."



It was moved by J. W. Marshall and seconded by Mr. E. E. C. Kilmer, that a vote of hearty appreciation be extended to Dr. Sandiford and that the paper be printed in full in the Proceedings. Carried. (See page 431.)

A joint session was held with the Public School Department addressed by John Brown, Jr., M.D., Secretary, Health and Recreation Department of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations, New York City.

Discussion on "Township or County Boards of Trustees" was introduced by Messrs. Mulloy, Stevens and Marshall. Some of the several advantages mentioned were:—

A broader viewpoint on the part of rural school boards;

A long step towards equalizing and adjusting the present unequal school sections;

A good preparatory step toward a fair trial of consolidation;

More satisfactory appointment of teachers;

Fewer changes of teachers;

Economy in purchasing school supplies;

Boards would regard their duties as better worth while and receive greater benefit from Inspectors, from Institutes, from O.E.A., etc.;

County Boards were considered more desirable but statistics went to show that Township Boards were a necessary first step.

The report of the Committee on Consolidated Schools was given in connection with Inspector Lees' excellent illustrated address on "The Consolidated Schools of Indiana, Illinois, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Manitoba," and was:—

*"Mr. President and Gentlemen:—*

Your committee appointed at last annual meeting to consider the question of the consolidation of rural schools beg to report as follows:—

Having made inquiry and investigation as to the working of the consolidated rural schools both in Canada and the United States, your committee find:—

1. That wherever care and discretion have been exercised in planning the districts, locating the schools, providing adequately for transportation of children, and other essential matters, the consolidated schools are giving general satisfaction.

2. These schools are overcoming, as nothing else can, the difficulty of the school that is too small for efficiency or even for moderate usefulness, as many of the rural schools of the Province are.

3. They are securing for children of rural communities, what they are entitled to, educational advantages equal to those of the cities.

4. They are bringing within the reach of country pupils the possibility of a High School education while still under the fostering care and influence of their homes.

5. They are going far toward making of the school a real centre around which develop, not only the educational, but the social and material interests of the community.

Your committee would therefore respectfully recommend:—

1. That the Inspectors who have to do with rural schools devote themselves, as far as time and circumstances will permit, to the creation of a public sentiment favourable to the movement for consolidation.

2. That this Section respectfully call the attention of the Minister to the fact that the Law and Regulations at present in force operate to the disadvantage of any effort toward consolidation, and ask that such changes be made as will put school sections that may consolidate in as favourable a position in regard to grants, both legislative and municipal, as before doing so."

On motion of Inspectors Michell and Tom this report was adopted and Messrs. R. Lees and J. W. Marshall were appointed to act with a committee from the Trustees' Department in bringing this matter to the attention of the Minister.

J. W. MARSHALL,

*Secretary Inspectors' Section, O.E.A.*

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## MINUTES OF THE TRAINING SECTION.

TORONTO, APRIL 26, 1916.

The Training Section of the O.E.A. met at 10 a.m. on the above date in Room B. N. 8, in the Technical School, Toronto, with the President, Mr. W. I. Chisholm, M.A., Peterboro, in

the chair. In the absence of the Secretary, Prof. H. J. Crawford, B.A., Toronto, J. A. Irwin was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The minutes of the last annual meeting were confirmed in the form in which they appeared in the printed Proceedings of the O.E.A. Mr. S. J. Keyes was appointed press representative, and H. A. Grainger to look after the arrangements for the dinner to be held in the St. Charles on Wednesday, April 26, at 5.30.

W. E. Macpherson, B.A., LL.B., Kingston, gave an interesting account of George Paxton Young, Inspector of Grammar Schools, while O. J. Stevenson, D.Paed, Toronto, gave a very practical paper on "The Point of View in the Teaching of Literature." (See page 448.)

On the request of the Inspectors' Department, a committee, consisting of Messrs. Hofferd, Emery, and Chisholm, was appointed to meet with a like committee from their Department to consider the question of a new "Geography Reader."

#### APRIL 27, 1916.

W. I. Chisholm, M.A., the President, addressed the section on "The School and the Library." In this he advocated that every teacher-in-training should receive instruction in the systematic use of libraries in order to teach his pupils to use them properly. (See page 439.)

The following officers for this Section for 1917 were elected:

<i>President</i> .....	A. Stevenson, B.A., London.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	J. A. Irwin, Toronto.
<i>Directors</i> .....	W. E. Macpherson, B.A., Kingston, D. Eagle, Windsor.

S. J. Radcliffe, B.A., London, gave a humorous and instructive paper on "The Action of Examiners," which was followed by a lively discussion by several of the members.

At 5.30 p.m. the members of the Inspectors' Department met the members of this Department at an informal banquet at the St. Charles, where all spent a very enjoyable hour in social intercourse.

#### APRIL 28, 1916.

The Training Section met with the Inspectors' Section.

## THE MINUTES OF TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 25TH, 1916.

The annual meeting of the Trustees' Association was held this afternoon in the new Technical School Building, Toronto.

The registration of members began promptly at 1 p.m. Fifty-six members registered during the first afternoon.

The meeting opened with Mr. E. A. Doolittle, President, in the chair and Rev. Buchanan, Elmvale, offered up a prayer.

Following gentlemen were appointed on the Press Committee:—Messrs. McNee, of Windsor, and Brown, of Ottawa.

Following gentlemen were appointed Auditors:—Messrs. Mistele, of Rodney and Harper, of Waterloo.

It was moved by Mr. Fairbairn and seconded by Mr. Guppy, that the minutes as printed in the Proceedings of the General Association be accepted as printed. Carried.

### TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

#### *Receipts.*

Balance brought forward .....	\$104 25
Total receipts from members in 1915 .....	156 00
	<hr/>
Total . . . . .	\$260 25

#### *Disbursements.*

April 9, 1915, General Secretary .....	\$43 00
April 9, 1915, Railways .....	17 50
May 4, 1915, Printing .....	7 75
March 29, 1916, Printing .....	9 60
April 20, 1916, Secretary as per statement ..	104 00
Balance . . . . .	78 40
	<hr/>
Total . . . . .	\$260 25

The appointment of delegates to the Educational Department was left over until a later session of this meeting.



Communications from D. Young, Guelph and J. E. Farewell were read, and Mr. Beal's verbal communication was given by the Secretary.

It was moved by Rev. Mr. Buchanan and seconded by Mr. Huber that the communications be given to a committee composed of Messrs. Guppy, McNee and Farewell who are to report thereon to-morrow morning.

At 2.30 p.m. the President delivered his address which was listened to with great attention.

For address see page 459.

It was moved by Mr. Laughton and seconded by Mr. Wickware, that the address be handed over to the Committee on Correspondence to report thereon. Following amendment was moved by Mr. McNee and seconded by Mr. Ormiston, that a Special Committee be appointed consisting of:—Dr. Wickware, Smith's Falls, Mr. Morris, Pembroke, Rev. Mr. Bell, Laurel, who are to report thereon. Amendment carried.

Following notices of motion were presented:—

1. Notice of motion by Mr. J. L. Armstrong, Brantford, "That this gathering of Trustees take under consideration the question of teachers for the future."

2. By H. J. Guppy, Rev. James Buchanan, Resolved that beginning with this meeting, and in future, the representatives of Town and City Schools be so organized that one session (on each day) of the annual meeting be set apart and programme arranged for discussion of such topics as concern them only, to be held in room set apart from the Trustees' Department with the proviso that an officer of the Association preside and take minutes and report to this Section, said minutes for incorporation of this Department.

Rev. Mr. Bell moved and Mr. A. R. Sutherland seconded, "That if a Nominating Committee be appointed such Committee be appointed during Wednesday morning session.

No vote was considered necessary as election of officers was on programme for Wednesday morning.

A joint meeting with Physical Training and Inspectors' Departments was held beginning at 3.20 p.m.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Toronto, gave an address on the subject of "Hygiene of the Backward Child." The doctor

addressed the meeting in her very able manner and with her experience in the work, she dealt with the subject in a deeply interesting manner, treating of those phases of the question which are very important, bearing on the status of manhood and womanhood of the future. The members paying marked attention as she dwelt on the different phases of the question elucidated in her address. She spoke for 55 minutes.

For her address see page 470.

Dr. Clark, Superintendent of the General Hospital, Toronto, addressed the meeting at 4.15 along similar lines of the same subject and referred to many features of the great necessity in dealing with defectives for economical reasons to the State, for giving defectives an opportunity to make the most in life, for the welfare of the child life, for the welfare of the parents, referring to the way in which it could be undertaken. No progress having resulted from dealing with the question at issue, he suggested that steps be taken to improve the present conditions.

Mrs. A. M. Huestis, of the Association for the Care of the Feeble-minded followed, and in introduction explained that owing to Dr. Hincks being unable to be present she had consented to take the doctor's place. She referred to a plan under consideration, namely, dividing the Province of Ontario into colonies, say seven colonies with a certain number of acres of land in connection with each colony and secure the best teacher or director to superintend the work. She also referred to the difficulty of getting the work undertaken so as to make a beginning. Dr. J. H. Putman, Public School Inspector, Ottawa, gave the meeting very valuable information along the lines of work, as the work had been carried on in some measure in Ottawa. About thirty children were gathered together and two capable teachers secured. Leading institutions in this work, one at Waverley, Mass., and another in Vineland, N.J., had been visited.

Great difficulties, however, were experienced, among others being the expense of the system and the opposition of parents and others in carrying on the work. If the Government were the custodian of defectives changes could be brought about and the result would be, that better and far more satisfactory results would follow. Dr. Helen MacMurchy addressed the meeting after the speakers mentioned had spoken, drawing attention to

some points referred to by them and in answer to a question as to custodianship said that as soon as diagnosis was made and the opinion rendered and such opinion of examiners expressed clearly that they were patients who required attention particularly applicable to defectives they should be transferred to a colony so established. No county does the best for such child.

Mr. Ormiston, of Uxbridge, and Col. Farewell, of Whitby, spoke in reference to the matter as to cost of crime and the motive of crime.

It was moved by Col. Farewell, seconded by Inspector Marshall, That this joint meeting desires to express their thanks to the speakers and recommends that Dr. MacMurchy's paper be printed in our minutes. Carried.

It was suggested that a committee composed of three members from each section prepare a resolution to hand into the General meeting of the Association on Wednesday evening, and that the Committee meet at 4.30 Wednesday afternoon. The recommendation of names comprising the Committee be as follows:—

Physical Training Section:—Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Toronto, Mr. Collings, Dr. Jas. L. Hughes, Toronto.

Inspectors' Section:—Mr. Putman, Ottawa, Mr. Kilmer, Brantford, Mr. Edwards, London.

Trustees' Section:—Col. Farewell, Whitby, Mr. Morris, Pembroke, Rev. Buchanan, Elmvale.

Moved by Dr. J. L. Hughes, seconded by Mr. Hamilton, that the gentlemen named be the Committee to draft the resolution to present to the General meeting. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Coughlin, seconded by Mr. Devitt, that we do now adjourn to meet Wednesday morning. Carried.

#### WEDNESDAY MORNING, APRIL 26TH.

The meeting opened at 9.10 a.m.

President E. A. Doolittle in the chair.

The minutes of previous session read and approved.

Your Committee on Correspondence reports as follows:—

Your Committee has carefully considered the request of D. Young regarding obtaining supplies at a more reasonable cost and we offer the following:—"We do not think it possible at



present for any single School Section to supply books, etc., free, but we are of opinion that the cost of supplies could be very much reduced by combining. We suggest a representative from each School Section form a County Executive for the opening of a stock room and purchase supplies for the School Sections of the County, purchasing wholesale and supplying each School Section's requisition at a slight increase over the actual cost. We submit this suggestion for consideration of those interested, believing it to be possible.

H. J. GUPPY, *Chairman*.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Fairweather, that this report be adopted. Carried.

Your Committee to whom was referred the letter of representative Col. Farewell calling attention to deaths and accidents caused by trespass on railway tracks, crossings, street and railway is deserving of notice and whilst cities and street railway systems and railroad companies are continually advertising and calling attention by placards such as "safety first," we suggest that the Trustees request the teachers of all schools to in every way possible impress by lecture, lantern talk or by any other method the necessity of pupils using every possible care and as so wisely expressed to Stop, Look and Listen before crossing any path of danger.

H. J. GUPPY, *Chairman*.

It was moved by Mr. McNee and seconded by Mr. Fairweather that this report be adopted. Carried.

Your Committee to whom was referred the suggestion of Mr. Beal expressing the opinion that the Board of Censors governing moving pictures should be placed under the supervision of the Department of Education, are of the opinion that the question might be taken up and submitted to the Department of Education with the view of their taking the matter into consideration with the Government requesting that at least for the present—as education and morality go together—the Department of Education be allowed a representative on the Board of Censorship.

Respectfully submitted,

H. J. GUPPY, *Chairman*.



It was moved by Mr. McNee and seconded by Mr. Fairweather, that this report be adopted. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. McNee and seconded by Mr. Fairweather, that the Legislative Committee take the matter in hand respecting the request of the Trustees' Section in reference to the appointment of a representative from the Department of Education on Censorship Board. Carried.

#### THE AUDITOR'S REPORT.

The Committee appointed as Auditors beg to report as follows:—

“We have examined the Treasurer's statement, compared vouchers and find the same correct.

Respectfully submitted,

J. J. MISTELE,

J. A. HARPER,

*Auditors.*

Moved by Mr. Mistele, seconded by Rev. M. Bell, That the report be adopted. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Loughton and seconded by Mr. Elliot, That the Legislative Committee be composed of the following gentlemen:—The President, Secretary and Director with power to add to their number. Carried.

Re notice of motion by Mr. Armstrong:—

Moved by Mr. Armstrong, seconded by Mr. Morris, That the question of teachers for our schools in the near future—which the war and industrial conditions will effect—be considered by our Executive Committee and they be asked to give it their earnest consideration as to the best way to secure an adequate supply and that the matter be passed to the Executive Committee to deal with. Carried.

Re notice of motion by Mr. Guppy:—

Moved by Mr. Guppy and seconded by Rev. Mr. Buchanan, Resolved that beginning with this meeting and in future, the representatives of Town and City Schools be so organized that one session on each day of the annual meeting be set apart and

programme arranged for discussion of such topics as concern them only, and to be held in a room set apart from the Trustees' Department with the proviso that an officer of the Association preside and take minutes and report to this Section, said minutes to be incorporated in minutes of this Department.

Following amendment was made:—

It was moved by Mr. Laughton and seconded by Mr. Bell, That beginning with this meeting and in future representatives of Town and City Schools be so organized that one session of the annual meeting be set apart and the programme arranged for discussion of such topics as concern them only. Amendment carried.

Nominating Committee:—

It was moved by Mr. Laughton and seconded by Mr. Harper, That the following gentlemen constitute the Nominating Committee:—Messrs. Armstrong, Brantford, Morris, Orangeville, McNee, Windsor, Elliot, Kingston, Rev. Bell, Laurel. Carried.

Mr. Henry Simpson, Toronto, gave an excellent paper on "School Architecture," illustrated by lantern views thrown on large screen. The address was well received, richly enjoyed by the delegates and full of practical information.

Moved by Rev. Buchanan and seconded by Mr. F. W. Wright, That this meeting tenders Mr. Simpson their hearty thanks for the excellent paper given before this meeting and that it be incorporated in the minutes. Carried.

For address see page 477.

We adjourned to the Auditorium of the Technical School (a few minutes late) where we had the pleasure of listening to an address delivered by Dr. Brown, of New York City, on "Play and Play Grounds." The doctor by the able manner in which he discussed the subject showed that this subject was one which had received a great deal of attention on his part and gave the meeting directions and information through and by which the mind and heart of the child under the teacher's care could be easily won, thereby acquiring a two-fold object, namely, the benefit of the play in the play ground and the benefit of the teaching in the school room. The doctor promised to supply a synopsis of his address and which will be incorporated in the minutes of the General Association.

## WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

Under the guidance of W. O. McTaggart, B.A., Chairman of the Advisory Industrial Committee, the delegates in attendance at the Trustees' Department were conducted through the beautiful new Technical School.

Principal Dr. McKay, who accompanied us, informed the delegates of the use and work carried on in the different sections visited. Toronto Technical Committee have great reason to be proud of being able to show one of the largest and best equipped institutes of its kind in America if not the best equipped. The visiting delegates were very much surprised and greatly delighted with the many interesting things shown and explained to them by Dr. McKay. The delegates expressed themselves delighted with the visit through the magnificent large Technical institution. After the completion of the visit we resumed our session in our room set apart for us, and the first order of business was to receive the report of the Nominating Committee.

Your Nominating Committee beg to submit the following nominations for the officers of the Association for the ensuing year:—

<i>President</i> .....	Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls.
<i>Vice-President</i> .....	J. J. Mistele, Rodney.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> .....	A. Werner, Elmira.
<i>Director</i> .....	E. A. Doolittle, Orillia.
<i>Executive Committee</i> .....	Irwin S. Armstrong, Brantford, Dr. Hoag, Oshawa, A. McNee, Windsor, W. D. McLellan, Harriston, E. G. Brown, Ottawa.

Moved by Mr. Armstrong, seconded by Rev. Mr. Bell, That the report of the Nominating Committee be adopted. Carried.

At 3.25 a joint meeting of Inspectors and Trustees was held in the Trustees' Section, the topic for consideration being the "Consolidation of Public Schools." Inspector R. Lees, M.A., for the Inspectors' Department gave an account of his visit to the States of Indiana and Illinois during his inspection of the

system in vogue in the respective States, and afterwards gave an illustrated lecture with lantern slides, showing the changes that these States have undergone in the education of the children in the rural sections, and said in part that Ontario would be forced before long to rearrange the present School Section system under which we are now carrying on the work, and made the statement that a late report shows that one hundred rural schools in Ontario had less than five pupils in attendance, that the work of 5,590 schools in Ontario could be arranged so that the benefits of the work and money now expended, in the various supervising and managing bodies of our present system would be materially augmented.

1. By increased attendance.
2. Would bring enough children into one school to co-operate in the work.
3. The co-operation would bring about an incorporation of the actual studies needed in the work to bring about best results.
4. A High School course can be held whilst under the parental care and be for the poor and the rich.
5. The school would become an important centre in the community, the building itself would be a centre of attraction and the benefit resulting from an education could be better shown and brought under the fathers' and mothers' attention. He contrasted the pride of the residents of the various centres in Indiana and Illinois in showing their interest in educational affairs brought about under their present system with the marked indifference prevailing in some of the municipalities in Ontario.

At 4.25, Mr. Parkinson, Editor of the "Canadian Teacher" for the Trustees' Section, addressed the meeting. He said in part, what is being done in Canada along these lines and gave an excellent review of the schools in Manitoba which had adopted a consolidated system. Mr. Parkinson has given the question great consideration for many years and expressed himself more deeply convinced to-day than ever that the only solution of this problem lay in adopting the introduction of Consolidated Schools into Old Ontario wherever practicable. In comparing school attendance of children in Ontario with that of Manitoba he finds that we are not reaching what Manitoba is doing and upon school attendance the whole cost of the educational machinery is largely



based. The loss sustained in that one feature alone should so stimulate to activity all Trustees that every child in Ontario under school age should receive the best Ontario can afford for Ontario must depend in the future for its welfare and progress upon those who are now being trained. The average attendance in 1914 showing only sixty-four per cent.

It should be so arranged as far as possible that it would make no difference whether a child is being educated in a city or in a rural section in the country, as far as advantages on account of living in a city are concerned they should be available to all children.

The Consolidated School would solve to a very large extent sending children from home to receive an education.

The Trustees of Starbuck, Man., School, report that:—

1. We have a more beautiful, more comfortable, more convenient, better equipped, better heated and ventilated school building, set in large and attractive grounds.

2. By our transportation system the pupils are able to attend more regularly and more comfortably in all weather, arriving at school in better condition for work.

3. We have the advantage of better grading and better supervision of teachers which is getting more and better work in the allotted time.

4. We have High School education free to all, rich and poor alike, without interfering with the lower grades.

5. Our courses of study can be more complete and better adopted and adjusted to local conditions and requirements.

6. We have better facilities for taking up when required all supplemental studies such as Domestic Science, Manual Training, Agriculture, School Gardening and Nature Study.

He urged the Inspectors and Trustees to investigate and study for themselves the advantages to be had in a Consolidated School System for a great many sections in Ontario and by a hearty and united co-operation much good would result.

Inspector Scovell, Muskoka, gave the meeting the results of adopting the system in Muskoka wherever practicable and after operating under the system he finds "not one dissenting" from its introduction.

The hour of 5.15 having arrived, the Chairman thought that after such a long day spent with pleasure in deliberation and study the members must be growing wearied.

Mr. J. J. Mistele spoke for a few minutes on the subject listened to during the afternoon.

Moved by Mr. Ormiston, seconded by Mr. Jordan, That the thanks of the combined meeting be tendered to Inspector Lees and Mr. Parkinson for their addresses. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Rev. Mr. Bell, That the subject of Consolidation of Schools be further considered by a Joint Committee appointed by Inspectors and Trustees, that the Committee press the matter upon the attention of the Minister of Education so that regulations may be arranged to permit the establishment of such schools. Carried.

Moved by Mr. McNee, seconded by Mr. Mistele, That we do now adjourn to Thursday morning. Carried.

#### THURSDAY MORNING, APRIL 27TH.

The session opened at 9.20 with President Doolittle in the chair.

The minutes of the two sessions on Wednesday were read and approved.

Moved by Mr. Elliott, seconded by Mr. Buchanan, That Messrs. Farewell, Doolittle and Robb be a Committee on Consolidated Schools to act in conjunction with the Committee appointed by the Inspectors. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Elliott, seconded by Mr. Ormiston, That the Trustees' Section desires to record its appreciation of the kindness of the Technical Committee, Principal MacKay and staff in piloting the Trustee through the splendidly equipped Technical School Building and hope that the instructions given may be the means of furthering the interests of Technical Education in Toronto and the Province, an education most desirable in promoting the industrial and commercial interests of the country. That a copy of this resolution be sent to the Committee and the Principal. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Mistele, That this Trustees' Section appreciates the excellent services of its painstaking Secretary, Mr. A. Werner and with pleasure recommends

that his usual honorarium of \$85.00 be granted for the year 1915-1916. Carried.

In reference to the discussion as to extending the membership of this Section, Mr. Brown, a member of the Elgin County Trustees' Association explained the interest taken in Elgin County not alone with their own local Association of Trustees but also in the Provincial Association; he urged all counties not yet organized to do so.

At 10.10, Mr. J. Russel Stuart, Public School Inspector, Kingston, gave an excellent address on "School Attendance." The Secretary asked Mr. Stuart if attendance forms the basis very largely of cost of supervision of conducting the education of our children under the present system, to which he replied affirmatively. And he was also asked if the interpretation of the words "efficiently taught elsewhere" in the Truancy Act was taken advantage of to any large extent according to his observation, to which he replied, that he could not give any definite answer according to his observation, but no doubt some difficulties might arise by reason of a very wide interpretation that might be made use of.

Mr. Downey asked about monthly attendance reports. The question of compulsory school age was also considered. Fort William reports an average attendance from 90 to 92 per cent.

The meeting enjoyed Dr. Stuart's address and the members appreciated the way in which he interested himself in replying to the questions.

Moved by Mr. Harper, seconded by Mr. Morris, That this meeting desires to express their thanks to Dr. Stuart for his instructive address. Carried.

The last but not the least of the many interesting addresses was delivered by Mr. J. S. Knapp, District Representative Department of Agriculture, on "The School Fair; its Place as a Factor in our Educational System." Mr. Knapp is one of the many young men sent out by the Department of Agriculture to bring valuable lessons in education to the homes of our Ontario children.

Mr. Knapp's paper was carefully prepared and the meeting was exceedingly well pleased with the many valuable points of interest contained therein.

It was moved by the Secretary and seconded by Mr. Mistele, That we thank Mr. Knapp for his paper and hope that his efforts along the lines of work he has undertaken will result with much success, and that his paper be printed. Carried.

See page 487.

The Committee on the President's address report as follows:—

We, your Committee appointed to consider the President's address beg leave to report as follows:—"That we have considered it and wish to commend the retiring President on the excellency of his address which in its scope covers a large area and statistically a decade of retrospect. We would call attention to fact of increase of educational expenditure of 122 per cent. in the past decade and without appearing pessimistic we would like to emphasize this item and ask if results or prospective results are correspondingly increasing? Regarding the regrettable Bilingual problem we of this Section are of the opinion that the English language should be the only language of the Primary Schools. The President touches on Vocational and Technical training; we wish to emphasize this work and we believe that it behooves us as Trustees to ever keep this branch in the foreground of our consideration, for in our opinion this branch of educational work must occupy possibly the most prominent place in our future consideration. We recommend that it be printed and published in the minutes of the O.E.A.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. M. MORRIS.

E. H. WICKWARE.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Mistele, That the Committee's report of President's address be adopted. Carried.

The President was asked to vacate the chair which was taken by the Secretary.

Mr. Elliot, of Kingston, referred to the services rendered by our past President, and for the interesting and pleasing manner in which the meetings were conducted, and for the most instructive and valuable programme which was prepared for our benefit and calling upon those present to show their appreciation by a hearty clapping of hands. The meeting responded in a



hearty clap of hands, after which he thanked the members for their appreciation of his efforts, and introduced the incoming president, Dr. E. H. Wickware to the meeting.

The doctor thanked the meeting for the honour bestowed upon him and asked the hearty co-operation of all members during the incoming term.

The session closed with singing "God Save the King."

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# FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1915-1916

## *Receipts.*

Balance from last Statement .....	\$823 07
Membership fees .....	596 50
Ontario Government grant .....	1,400 00
Bank interest .....	39 91
Advertisements .....	60 00
	\$2,919 48

## *Disbursements.*

Viseing R.R. certificates .....	\$60 50
Expenses of Convention .....	14 50
Expenses of Superannuation Committee of 1914-1915.....	29 15
Secretaries of departments .....	60 00
Postage, cartage, etc. ....	20 75
Reporting Annual Meeting .....	37 50
Lecturer's expenses .....	14 70
Printing Proceedings .....	899 23
Printing programmes, etc. ....	221 89
Commission on advertisements .....	15 00
General Secretary's salary .....	200 00
Railway fares for Board of Directors .....	128 45
Printing circulars, letters, etc. ....	13 08
Presentation to retiring Treasurer, W. J. Hendry.....	62 00
Supplies and printing for Superannuation Committee.....	258 10
Travelling expenses for Superannuation Committee.....	99 87
Postage, telegraph, telephone for Superannuation Committee..	107 32
Secretarial assistance for Superannuation Committee.....	250 00
Balance .....	427 44
	\$2,919 48

H. WARD,  
*Treasurer.*

To R. W. DOAN, ESQ.,  
*Secretary, Ontario Educational Association.*

Dear Sir,—

We, the undersigned Auditors, have the honour to report that we have examined the books, statements and vouchers of the Treasurer, Mr. Henry Ward, and find them correct in every particular.

The receipts for the year amount to \$2,919.48, and the expenditures \$2,492.04, leaving a balance on hand at date of audit of \$427.44.

Respectfully submitted.

JOHN DEARNESS,  
S. NETHERCOTT,  
*Auditors.*

TORONTO, April 26th, 1916.

## GENERAL ASSOCIATION

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### ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

COL. THE HON. R. A. PYNE, M.D., LL.D., MINISTER OF  
EDUCATION, TORONTO.

*Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen,*—I rather look forward to these annual gatherings, because your Association has always done me the honour of inviting me to be present each year and I may say that if you do not tire of me, I am sure I shall not tire of you.

Since I addressed you last many changes have taken place. The principal topic of a year ago was—the war—and the war is still with us, perhaps in an intensified form. After a year's experience we can say that our gallant troops stand perhaps better to-day than they stood a year ago, and that is saying a good deal. A year ago they had their first baptism of fire in those terrible battles of Ypres, Langemarek, St. Julien and Festubert. And in some of the hospitals to-day in England you will find wounded men and invalids who are waiting and hoping to return to their duty. And let me illustrate the sentiment that permeates these wounded Canadians by an anecdote: I saw a young man from one of our towns in this Province with both his legs off, resting quietly and patiently, and when it was said to him: "Oh, this is too bad, is it not?" "For an old hockey player," he said, "it is very disastrous." He said, "I was a great hockey player in Ontario. Here I am." "I guess you are done with hockey." "Yes, I know I am done with hockey but I do hope to live to be able to look on at hockey." Now, that is the spirit of our Canadian heroes. Not far from him was a man who was blind and he continued: "Bad as I am, that poor fellow is a hundred times worse." And I quite agreed with him.

Recently we have not had a repetition of these terrible battles but we have the battle at Verdun, and again the Canadians seem to have saved the day in that part of the front where they are

situated. Twice in this great contest it is said that the Canadians saved the day, as they did a year ago, when the Germans were making for Calais with a view of invading England. When you think of it all and of who these Canadians are, it should be said that much of the credit they have done to Canada and to Great Britain is owing to the people I see before me to-night—the teachers of this Province. It was the teachers who in days gone by inculcated in the youth of this Province love of home, loyalty to King and Flag, the two things that have animated them throughout the struggle, and as you know every soldier in this war speaks of the valour, the spirit, and the endurance of the Canadian soldier. Even our enemy says they are the best troops fighting in Europe to-day. These praises which are so pleasant to hear are, I believe, due in no slight measure to the teaching profession of this Dominion. That our cause is just is a great spur to effort, and we know that we are fighting for truth and justice in this war and for the freedom of all mankind throughout the world. The prospects of victory never looked brighter than they do to-day. And victory will come, I believe, as surely as we are gathered here to-night, and peace will follow that victory.

Then a great problem will arise before the people of Canada and the British Empire. I was delighted to read some of the sentiments that came from members of your Association regarding our future and the necessity of getting ready for the future. At the recent meeting of the Legislature the members were much impressed with the duty of making some effort to be ready when victory and peace come. An Act was passed creating a Provincial Committee to secure the organization of the resources of the Province for efficient co-operation with the Federal authorities in the prosecution of the war and in the maintenance of the agricultural and industrial production of Ontario. I trust you will choose some of your members whose advice and help would be of advantage to that Committee. The Legislature also passed an Act constituting a Central Provincial Committee of the Military Hospitals Commission to be known as the Soldiers' Aid Commission of Ontario. They, also, will select some of your members to co-operate with the Commission when it meets. Your proposals, no doubt, would be in the direction of vocational train-



ing for wounded soldiers, many of whom left clerical work and occupations of that character, but who, by their service in the field, will in the future prefer the open air or some forms of activity quite different from what formerly contented them. I have not given up the hope that vocational and industrial training in this Province will receive recognition and encouragement by grants from the Federal authorities. I do not know whether they can see their way to do this during the war, but you know what they have done regarding industrial agriculture and the same policy should be pursued in respect of industrial training.

Let me say a word, Mr. President, regarding your Superannuation Bill or Pension Fund. I propose to read here the promise made from the late Sir James Whitney, through myself and my Deputy, to you two years ago regarding this measure. I do so for the reason that I want to point out to you the very great necessity there is of unity in this matter among the people interested in it. This was the promise: "I have consulted my colleagues and we have definitely decided to offer a measure dealing with the superannuation of teachers at the next session of the Legislature. This measure will necessarily be affected by three considerations: First, a certain amount of public indifference on the subject. Second, hostility on the part of a portion of the teaching profession itself. Thirdly, the existence on the Statute Book of the old Pension Fund. Subject to the limitations imposed by these conditions we shall try to frame a measure just to the teachers, acceptable to the public, and any legislation of this kind must necessarily receive the endorsement of the great majority of the parties affected." And that is why I read this; the teachers themselves I hope to see unanimous on this matter. The Pension Bill which was given a first reading last year and which we had the opportunity of discussing throughout the year has now been changed in certain respects, as you will see when you get a copy of the new Bill. The levy for the fund under the new Bill would be equally divided between the teachers of the Province and the Province itself, that is, two and a half per cent. on the salaries of teachers and two and a half per cent. from the Province, while the length of service for which a provision is given may be reduced, under certain conditions from 40 years in the old Bill, to 30 in this. I do not like to speak

with any great confidence yet as to how the provisions of the Bill will work out, but I understand that the actuary who has helped to revise the scheme believes them to be satisfactory. Let me point out again, that the teachers should stand like one person regarding this Bill; otherwise it is poor encouragement for the Government to endeavour to do something that a portion of the teachers are opposed to. That is a very difficult problem. I hope and trust during the year, through the efforts that may be made to bring this Bill before you, that you will see the necessity, as I say, of giving it every possible support. United action I believe will be necessary.

I found in England—from some inquiries on these matters in the spare time I had—that male teachers may retire at an average age of 53 and female teachers at the age of 51 years. But this disadvantage was the result, although it might not occur in a young country like our own Province, that teachers at the age of 45 and 50 often find it very difficult to secure positions, which seems very unfair to the teaching profession, because the lawyer, the physician, the minister or the man of affairs has only just reached the zenith of his usefulness at those ages.

In conclusion let me once more assure you of the deep interest felt by the Government in your profession. This was true of the Government under the late Sir James Whitney and is equally true of this. I wish you all good speed in the noble work to which you devote yourselves.

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*ADDRESS OF WELCOME.*

MR. WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A., CHAIRMAN, BOARD OF EDUCATION,  
TORONTO.

On behalf of the Board of Education of the City of Toronto, I have very great pleasure in welcoming you to this fine building; but as the Chairman of the Advisory Industrial Committee has to address you, I shall not further refer to the place in which we have assembled. I will leave that to him, as he is more competent to deal with the subject than I am.

I wish to say a few words about the Association as I have known it. If you look at the title page of the announcement of this meeting, you will see that this is its fifty-fifth annual session, and I am in a position to inform you that though I have not been a member of it continuously during the intervening half century, I first became one in 1866. I am not saying this by way of boasting, but I am pleased to be able to say that during those fifty years of membership I do not think I have missed altogether more than ten yearly gatherings, and those were missed involuntarily. Let me add, by way of certification, and to impress the younger generation of teachers with the importance of your work as an organization, that I have never attended a meeting of this Association without going away feeling that I had been amply rewarded for being present. My testimony on this point should be entitled to all the more weight because only half of my time has been devoted to work that was strictly "educational," the other half having been spent in work only indirectly so; that of the profession of journalism. Let me add to what I have already said a few words about the work which this Association has achieved—and I have perhaps better means than any other person living of forming an opinion. You were, when I first became one of your members, a very small body. The members of all branches of the teaching profession of this Province sat together in common council: high school teachers, or grammar school teachers, as they were then called; public school teachers, or common school teachers, to give them their then name; and inspectors, under their old title of local superintendents. Now you have I do not know how many subdivisions,

and I am not sure that you have not carried the fissiparous process further than is either necessary or convenient. A celebrated Irishman—and only an Irishman can say such a thing—once said “A man cannot be in two places at once barring he is a bird.” It is impossible for a member to be in twenty places at the same time, in each of which he would like to be.

Leaving that matter of policy for yourselves to decide, let me add a remark about your influence during the half century since I first knew about it personally. My first year in your ranks was the year before the Confederation of 1867. We were then the “Province of Canada” not the “Dominion of Canada;” we were then “Upper Canada,” not “Ontario;” we were then just a “teachers’ association,” not an “Ontario Educational Association.” We used to discuss then the very highest and most important issues connected with education just as we do now, in the usual way and with the usual results. At that time we passed resolutions, some of them highly charged with indignation, others containing ambitious and philosophical suggestions as to what ought to be done by the Education Department, which was then presided over by, not a Minister of Education like my friend Dr. Pyne here to-night, but a Chief Superintendent of Public Instruction. The grammar schools, now high schools, were not then under the jurisdiction of the Education Department. That change came in 1871, when the most important of all our Education Acts was passed. That Act introduced for the first time compulsory attendance at the public schools, and at the same time made public elementary education compulsorily free, except for non-resident pupils. It also substituted “inspectors” for “superintendents,” and made it obligatory for those inspectors to be something more than preachers, or lawyers, or even retired farmers.

I merely mention these things because, as they come back to my mind, I find myself still strongly of the opinion, which I formed years ago, as the result of intimate acquaintance with the aims and work of this Association, that of all the purely voluntary organizations I have ever known, working without the help of legal incorporation, this body has done more and better work than any, perhaps more than all of them put together, and



one reason is that the purpose of its members is entirely altruistic: to assist one another in making the whole teaching profession better fitted for improving the rising generation.

I have great pleasure, before I take my seat, in again welcoming you to all the privileges which, as a Board of Education of which I happen to be this year the Chairman, we can possibly extend to you. I wish your deliberations this year—just because they are carried on under our auspices—may be more signalized for good than those of any of the previous fifty-four years.

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*ADDRESS OF WELCOME.*

MR. W. O. McTAGGART, B.A., CHAIRMAN, ADVISORY INDUSTRIAL COMMITTEE OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, TORONTO.

It affords me a twofold pleasure to welcome to this building on behalf of the Advisory Industrial Committee the representatives of the Ontario Educational Association. It is a twofold pleasure because I can look upon educational matters from the standpoint of those who govern as well as those who are governed. I had the pleasure in my earlier years of standing behind a teacher's desk and following the pursuit in which most of you are engaged. It is an honour also to be able to welcome here a body such as you are, because I believe that there is no body of men and women meeting in the Province of Ontario who represent interests any greater than, or as great as the interests which you represent. You set the status in the coming years for the Province of Ontario for its people mentally, morally and, shall I say, physically. I hesitated about adding that word physically because I believe that we have not been devoting sufficient attention in past years to that particular phase of school work.

The Honourable Dr. Pyne referred to the war. I believe that the unpreparedness of England, leaving out the question of ammunition, was due not so much to the lack of men—that is in numbers—but the lack of men that were physically fit. The School Board has had a discussion lately as to the introduction of compulsory military training. I am opposed to that, not through antipathy to military training but rather from the standpoint that it should not be introduced between the ages of ten and eighteen years of age. I believe we should extend our physical courses very materially in the schools of this Province. Why are the men to-day detained in this Province and in Canada so many months and then so many months in England before they go to the trenches? It is not to teach them the amount of military training that is required but it is necessary to keep them there in order to make them physically fit to undergo the work of the trenches.

That is somewhat of a digression, as I did not intend to speak on that subject. I intended to speak more particularly in refer-

ence to the work we do here in Toronto in connection with vocational training. A few years ago pupils graduating from the public schools had really but one choice if they wished to continue in educational work, and that choice was to go to a Collegiate Institute. If they wished to better their condition for commercial life or for industrial life there was no opportunity presented to them to do this. The Department of Education in recent years recognized this, I believe, when they passed the Advisory Industrial Act, the Act governing vocational institutions, and placed in the Act the basis on which committees shall be formed governing institutions such as this. This institution is governed by twelve members, six representing the Board of Education and six representing outsiders from the Trades and Labour Council and from the commercial life of the city, the Board of Trade.

There has been considerable criticism since we launched this undertaking and put up a building of this size and with the equipment which you will be able to see in this building. I happened to be the Chairman of the Advisory Industrial Committee at the inception of this building. I am willing to take all the criticism that they may give me, with those associated with me, in putting up this building. It was only opened last fall, and the attendance during this session has warranted every dollar of expenditure, I believe, that has been put upon it. There were present during the last term in this institution 4,217 pupils in the evening classes and something over 2,000 in the day classes, or an attendance of something over 6,000—6,317, I think, are the exact figures. I believe we started this Institution in exactly the right time, because I believe when this war is ended there will be a great era of industrial development in Canada and this is the day and age of specialists. We will be in a position in this Institution to turn out those specialists that will be required in ever-increasing number in the industrial lines in this Province and in this Dominion. We have, as possibly most of you know, an allied institution or complement of this one, the High School of Commerce and Finance. In this Institution we are providing the men who will look after the manufacturing end in the years to come, in the other institution we are providing the office men and the men who will look after the proper distribution of the finished product.

We are going to give you an opportunity to see through this building. I think it is to-morrow afternoon the hour was set for going over the building. At least, that is the programme in connection with some sections. It is a pleasure to me to extend to you the freedom of the building. I hope, that when you go away from here, you will feel that you did the right thing when you changed your place of meeting in the City of Toronto, and that you will be able to acquire a first-hand knowledge of the work that we are conducting in this Institution and that it will assist in spreading throughout the Province this work of vocational training. I do not expect that you will be able to go into it on such a scale as we have gone into it in the City of Toronto in the various municipalities which you represent, but I believe every municipality should be doing a certain amount of it. There should be more manual training and domestic science\*found in the schools throughout the Province, and it should be carried right up through the various grades.

I notice that you are getting behind in your schedule for this evening; I will not detain you any longer but again express the pleasure that I have in welcoming you to this building and trust your stay here will be an enjoyable one and that you will take away with you many pleasant recollections of the three or four days that you spent within its walls.

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## PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

### "AMBASSADORS TO THE COURT OF CHILDHOOD."

CHAS. G. FRASER, PRINCIPAL MANNING AVENUE SCHOOL,  
TORONTO.

*Ladies and Gentlemen*,—Allow me, on this my first opportunity, to express my appreciation of the honour you have conferred upon me, by electing me to the Presidency of the Ontario Educational Association, the highest honour the teachers of the Province can confer upon a member of their profession; and when I look over the list of those who have occupied that place in the past, and see the illustrious names that appear there, I may be pardoned if some feelings of great satisfaction come over me, when I remember that my name will have a place among the others.

There is a little poem, by D'Arcy McGee, that has had a peculiar influence on my life, coming, as it did, at an opportune moment and remaining as an incentive to stronger endeavour. It runs like this:—

"I would not die with my work undone,  
My quest unfound, my goal unwon,  
Though life were a load of lead.  
Ah! rather I'd bear it day by day,  
Till bone and blood were worn away,  
And Hope, in Faith's lap, lay dead.

"I dreamed a dream when the woods were green,  
And my April heart made an April scene  
In the far, far distant land,  
That even I might something do  
That should keep my memory fresh and true,  
And my name from the spoiler's hand."

Such a sentiment, placed in the heart of a child, should transform the commonest clod, into something to emblazon the page of history; and, speaking to-night, to those to whom the opportunity comes, of placing ennobling thoughts in the hearts of children, I desire, at this, the concluding moments of my presidency, to give expression to a thought or two which might stimulate you to a greater appreciation of the dignity, and sacredness of your calling, as Ambassadors to the Court of Childhood.

Well do I remember the first ray of gladness and song-shine which came into my school-life, when, for the first time, I was attracted to the school-room, and did not need to *drag* my weary form at the call of urgent duty; but responded gladly to the carol of privilege. I had known what it was to get "the stick" on every occasion. No day at school without six, or seven, or more, punishments—and none of them to be ignored; and when the condition of my hands moved the master to reflection, he directed the punishment to a place which could make no eloquent appeal for his mercy. As each class was dismissed, those of us who had been called to the front by an unjust and arbitrary monitor, were punished; and I was usually there. The teacher had no time to inquire into my case—there were too many cases. The slate frame was used and each of us was sent to his seat to receive further attention when the next class was dismissed. Day after day, the weary treadmill work went on, till, as a child of nine or ten, I ran away.

But there came a change. A new master appeared upon the scene, and old things passed away. Regular lessons came, and we had singing before each recess, and at the opening and closing of school. Songs were learned which have since given music to many an hour of service, and have smoothed the sharp edges from many a day of toil. A new interpretation of life was given to me, and it is little wonder, that more than forty years afterwards, that master's voice roused me from my Saturday afternoon nap, to an instant recognition of who was at the door, asking for "Charlie Fraser." Many persons, rich and poor, have graced my board during the many years I have had the privilege of having a home, but no one was ever more welcome than my old school-master; and among the scores of letters of congratulation that I received a year ago, none were more dear to me than *that* from Mr. John R. Code, of Trowbridge, who to me, looks just as he did "some forty years ago."

It is said that there are compensations for our crosses. So perhaps those early days of Egyptian servitude have borne fruit, in making me fairly indifferent to any "lickings" I may get in life. As a boy, I endured all that man could do to me, and as a man I can do so again. It is sometimes said that I have not acquired a reputation for purely peaceful pursuits, but in reply

I would say that those who have felt the heel of official injustice should feel called upon to challenge any wrong that comes within the circle of their influence. Man is born to be an instrument of usefulness, and hearing such a call, we should lend ourselves to service so that our lives may be neither barren nor unfruitful.

From the long distant past, there has grown a custom of sending a representative from one nation to the court of another. In the earliest times, it was the weaker community that was compelled to send a representative to the court of the conqueror. These persons were called hostages, and were to be a pledge for the fulfilment of the conditions agreed upon, and a guarantee of the good conduct of the communities from which they came. Usually they selected the noblest youths of the land for this important position. These were educated in all the learning of the new courts. • They formed friendships with new associates, and usually went back to their own land to cement the friendship which had been formed between the two countries. This of course came at the conclusion of a war; but in the course of time a forward step was taken when a representative was sent, at a time of misunderstanding, for the purpose of avoiding a struggle; and in many cases the mission was successful, for, when the conditions are known, two honourable, fair-minded parties cannot go to war. War is possible only when one of the parties insists on selfish demands such as were made by Germany, and which led to the gigantic world-struggle which is in progress to-day.

Then it came to be the custom for each court to have a regular accredited representative at each of the other courts, holding the position of ambassador, maintaining the dignity of his sovereign and guarding the interests of his nation; but as a final step in the development of civilization, the ideal which dominates some of these representatives to-day is not the narrow selfish advantage of their own nation, but the broader view of cosmopolitan interests, and their highest dream is the co-operation of all the nations in those movements which recognize the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man.

These ambassadors must represent their sovereigns at these foreign courts, they must interpret the policy of their home governments, they must convey communications of international import.

and must keep their home governments thoroughly informed of the public movements and activities of those distant lands. They must conduct themselves so as to win the respect and hold the confidence of those with whom they sojourn, and thus maintain a harmonious understanding between the two nations; and the national friendship and co-operation which should result from such conditions will be of inestimable advantage to both nations.

In the carrying on of this mission, friendships will be formed and attachments made, which will make the new land a second home, where their children will be reared, where their friends will live, where their sympathies will find expression in devotion to social, non-political movements, and thus enable them to remain men and prevent their becoming mere machines. While representing their king and court faithfully, they will have a strong affection for, and a deep sympathy with, the people with whom they have come to dwell.

Realizing the importance of the work, we can readily understand how carefully these representatives are selected and how well trained they must be for their special work. They must be intelligent, devoted, and resourceful. They must be qualified intellectually, socially, morally, temperamentally and spiritually, for their great work; and it is this last quality which brings about the highest expression of international diplomacy. As these representatives remember the vast interests that are confided to their care, they apply themselves with no ordinary devotion to acquit themselves worthily; and the whole power of the nation that they represent is pledged to their protection in the performance of their duty.

When selecting a suitable subject for my president's address, I was struck with the similarity that existed between the position of a teacher and that of an ambassador. It was the time of this great international world-struggle, and the importance of the work of the ambassadors was being emphasized in the daily press. How different, in the eyes of the world, the position of these two appeared to be; and yet it is said that the schoolmasters of Germany were the ones responsible for the trouble, that in creating wrong ideals in the hearts of the children of Germany for forty years, they had made this world struggle inevitable. This emphasizes the importance of the teacher's position as an Am-



bassador to the Court of Childhood, and when teachers recognize fully, the possibilities of their calling, and rise to their opportunities, their place will be as honourable in the eyes of their fellow men, as that of an ambassador to the Court of St. James, or higher still, an ambassador from the Court of St. James.

The teacher is sent as the representative of his court, to dwell among the children, to conduct himself in such a way as to win the confidence and the affection of his little charges, so as to secure their co-operation in the search for *wisdom* which is "the secret of true living." He must fill those young hearts with a love for the pure, the beautiful, and the good, all of which he is supposed to stand for. He must lead them to an appreciation of the value of single acts, and the difference there is between acts of selfishness and little deeds of service.

He must place ideals before the youthful minds, that will give colour even to their sleeping thoughts, and call up visions in the night like those that came to Joseph, to keep his heart sweet and true in hours of bitterest experiences. It is well said that heaven lies all around us in our infancy, but to become cognizant of the fact it requires some one with spiritual experience to interpret the conditions—some one who has learned their import and knows their value, who can distinguish the dross from the gold. Thus, Eli ministered to little Samuel, and thus blind old Isaac was given to Joseph. Was anyone sent to you? To whom have you been sent?

I have always been struck with the marvellous simplicity of that all-embracing prayer of Elisha at Dothan. You remember it: "Lord, open his eyes that he may *see*." And when God answered the prayer and opened the young man's eyes, behold the mountain was full of horses and chariots of fire, round about Elisha.

"You never have seen it? Ah, me! Ah, me!  
What a poor, sleepy, lie-a-bed you must be."

A teacher who is not a true interpreter of his sovereign, to the Court of Childhood, who does not stand in the presence of the Shekinah, who does not share fully the inheritance of childhood, which is buoyancy, hope and love, who does not *dwell* in the realm of childhood, cannot be in possession of those necessary

facts which are presented by D'Arcy McGee in his beautiful little poem, "The Children's Catechism," answering those four mystic questions:—

Why are children's eyes so bright?  
 Why do children laugh so gay?  
 Why do children love so free? and  
 Why do children speak so true?

Did you ever enter the realm of the spiritual, taking off your shoes as you recognize that the ground on which you stand is holy ground. Listen to the introduction of that little poem:—

"Why are children's eyes so bright?  
 Tell me why.  
 'Tis because the infinite  
 Which they've left is still in sight,  
 And they know no earthly blight,  
 Therefore 'tis their eyes are bright."

There are many instances recorded in history which emphasize "What might have been." "*If thou hadst known in this thy day,*" is one of the saddest that we can recall. But the wail has become so common that we have ceased to notice it. We shrug our shoulders and say "It is the common lot." Indolence, a desire for ease, and a supreme love for filthy lucre, have so dominated our lives, that we neglect our opportunities of engaging in the inner service of the King. We are so engrossed with many things, that we do not choose that better part which cannot be taken away; and when it is too late, we say with Wolsey:—

"O Cromwell, Cromwell,  
 Had I but served my God with half the zeal  
 I served my king, He would not, in mine age,  
 Have left me naked to mine enemies."

But who is the sovereign to whom the teacher must render his account, and whom he must represent at the Court of Childhood. Primarily, he is the employee of his trustees and is supposed to receive his orders from them. Within the scope of the Regulations of the Department of Education, these trustees seem to be absolute, and at times they say, like Pilate, "Knowest thou not that I have power to crucify thee, and I have power to release

thee." But in the performance of their duties as trustees, they are exercising authority which has been intrusted to them by others. They are the representatives of the parents of the section and must give an account of their stewardship.

In these days, when specialization is the watchword of the times, teachers, supposed to be experts in child-training, are employed to assist the parents in the education of the children of the land—but only to assist. It is the parents that are responsible, but the teachers who have the opportunity. To them it is said, "Take this child and train it for me and I will pay thee." What will the remuneration be? The monthly salary? Or will it be the daily privilege of living with the children and the after joy of the true teacher, as his boys and girls of tender, faithful care, come to occupy an honoured place among the leaders of the land? That teacher is poor indeed who has only bonds, and houses, and lands, to show for his forty years of service.

The most precious natural resource in this world—a name given to God-supplied endowment—is the childhood of a land. It is the human element which crowns God's creation and changes the face of things, organizing and utilizing the resources of the farm, the forest and the mine; and the difference that is so apparent in men depends upon the extent to which each recognizes God in his life. If you are a child-trainer do not give your whole attention to the great truth that two and two are four, or even the greater truth that ten tens make a hundred. These truths deal only with the material and the intellectual. That is grovelling in the dust. There is a realm above and beyond that, that interprets these in a way that makes life worth living and possessions worth having. If you have the revelation and the experience which will interpret life, and throw light upon the pathway of childhood, it has been entrusted to you to be transmitted to those who are in your care. Remember that the fountain that is constantly emptying itself supplies the clearest and most refreshing draughts to the weary passerby.

The ambassadors of the Court of St. James represent their sovereign, and for the time being are toggged out in vice-regal robes; but the Ambassadors to the Court of Childhood may have the experience which was given to Gideon for the performance

of his great work, for the descriptive expression which is used in the original of this wonderful story says "That God clothed himself that day with Gideon." Was not that a marvellous personification? And is it not an experience which others might have who lend themselves to His service?

If you are endowed with qualities which will make you intellectually, socially, morally, temperamentally and spiritually qualified to become an Ambassador to the Court of Childhood, and will devote your service to this great calling, planning for its success, and striving to reach its fulfilment, you will find a satisfaction in life, that comes only to those who render full service; and, as, when the shadows of evening are falling, the western sky lights up with the sunset glory—a promise of the beauty of the coming day—so, at the close of your life's service, visions will come to you which will enable you to break out into rapturous expressions like those of Paul, the Apostle to the Gentiles.

And, as Bunyan's Christian was given a vision of the Delectable Mountains, the object of his pilgrimage, which wakened his hopes, stimulated his faith and strengthened his purpose, so I would have you catch a glimpse of your glorious opportunity as Ambassadors to the Court of Childhood which will produce an application that will attain a realization of D'Arcy McGee's beautiful little gem.

Remember you? Your boys and girls will imitate you.

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*CANADA, THEN AND NOW.*

HON. MR. JUSTICE RIDDELL: Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, when I was asked by Mr. Doan to address this Association during the present meeting, I cast about in my mind for a subject upon which to frame something in the way of an address: and with that caution which I have learned from having been on the bench nearly ten years and at the bar more than twice as long, I selected a subject which would enable me to swing around a bit in case I found it necessary to change the line which I might fix upon in the first instance. Therefore, I told my friend Mr. Doan, that I should speak on the subject "Canada, Then and Now." Of course you understand I could give an address (as I have done in this hall before) on the conduct of Canadians in the war one hundred years ago and in the war going on at the present time: I could draw comparisons between the civilization then, one hundred years ago, and now: I might, if some reverend doctor were not on the platform with me, even venture to say something about theology one hundred years ago and at the present time. But when I was turning the matter over in my mind, I came across a little book (which I had never seen before) in the Public Reference Library, which brought back into play the old schoolmaster instinct. They say that Coleridge once said to his friend: "Did you ever hear me preach?" "Why," says his friend, "I never heard you do anything else." So in the same way, they tell me, those friends of mine, that the old schoolmaster instinct will show itself, the old schoolmaster peculiarities will exhibit themselves in my conduct from time to time, and, as the Chairman has just said, I remain a schoolmaster at heart.

Over forty-seven years ago—before most of you were born, before the parents of some of you were born—I went out to teach a public school in the new part of the Township of Haldimand. I taught that public school and I have taught every kind of school that you can think of, the small, local, rural public school, the larger graded village school, the large town school, the Collegiate Institute, the Normal School and I have even gone so far as to teach in the Universities, in the faculties of law

and medicine and arts. (I have not yet been dignified by a chair or lectureship in Theology but perhaps that will come later on.) I thought I should prepare a paper based somewhat on that little school book.

Now, I am sorry for some of my friends that I see here. I know that the caption, "Canada, Then and Now" is taking, and I daresay some of my friends who are here expect something entirely different from me; and I am really sorry for them if they have been induced to come here by false pretences. That would, however, just be on a par with the enthusiastic student of Burns and his poems, who saw advertised "the celebrated Dr. Thompson's work on Burns, \$5.00"; he sent for it and got by return of mail, "Burns and Scalds and Their Treatment, by John Henry Thompson, M.D., M.R.C.S." If anybody should be disappointed, they will have to bear with me for a short time—I shall not detain them very long. I supposed that I was to address a body of teachers, schoolmasters—and those, who, are more important not only in numbers but also in significance, schoolmistresses—and therefore my paper is more or less—sometimes more and sometimes less—of a technical character.

In 1799 a young Scotsman—if it be lawful to call an Aberdonian a Scotsman—left his home, and on the last day of the year arrived at Kingston, in the new Province of Upper Canada, a Province which was then but just eight years old. He probably had little thought that in the course of time he would become the first Anglican Bishop of Toronto and one of the most prominent and powerful politicians in Upper Canada.

The first Lieutenant-Governor, John Graves Simcoe, had contemplated the erection of an Academy which should grow into a College under the care of the Government of the Province. The celebrated Dr. Chalmers was offered the position of Principal of the proposed institution; he refused, as did another of less note, and at length it was offered to John Strachan, who was teaching the Parish School at Kettle. Eighty pounds sterling per annum, free board and lodging, and all the travelling expenses to the new land paid, proved an irresistible lure. The young man of twenty-one, graduate in Arts of King's College, Aberdeen, a divinity student, could not but accept.

But matters were sadly different when he arrived in the colony from what had been expected. Simcoe had gone home, the Academy scheme had fallen to the ground, and the best the young immigrant could do was to become tutor in the family of the Honorable Richard Cartwright, a prominent merchant of Kingston, Member of the Legislative Council, who had been Judge of the District Court of that District when it was the District of Mecklenburg and before Upper Canada was born—a man of great ability, inflexible integrity and unassuming piety, whose grandsons in our day—Sir Richard Cartwright, James S. Cartwright (both now dead), and John R. Cartwright (still with us), have proved themselves worthy descendants of a worthy ancestor.

In 1800, Strachan opened a private school at Kingston, and shortly thereafter took orders in the Church of England. His mother was and remained a Presbyterian of the Relief Church; but his father had been a Dissenter and an adherent of the Episcopal Church of Scotland. His father died when Strachan was six years old and the lad accompanied his mother to her Church, but he was never ordained; so it is not fair to charge him (as has sometimes been done) with unfaithfulness to his Church or to his vows.

He was appointed Rector of the Church at Cornwall by the Lieutenant-Governor, Peter Hunter, in 1803, and at once entered upon his duties there.

But the schoolmaster instinct was not dead—indeed, it died only with him. His clerical work was comparatively light, and he began taking pupils. Before long he established the Academy at Cornwall at which were educated so many men of renown in our early history, a school characterized by the thoroughness of its training and the high sense of duty and patriotism which it imparted to its pupils. That the training was narrow, the patriotism that of the High Tory, was not a blemish in the eyes of the schoolmaster or of most of his patrons. I would not have it supposed that he excluded, or attempted to proselytise when admitted, students of another creed—the Presbyterian McLean and the Roman Catholic Macdonell were as welcome and as unmolested in their religion as the Anglican Robinson.

The Parliament of Upper Canada had carefully provided for law courts, law and juries, gaols and courthouses, militia, excise and tavern licences, weights and measures, the value of

coins, tolls to be taken by millers, municipal officers, assessment and taxes (for taxes, like death, are inevitable), roads and statute labour, the registration of deeds and other instruments of title, wages for legislators, the practice of law and of medicine.

It had even provided—the first British country to do so, the second country in all the world—for the abolition of slavery. But it had not provided for the abolition of illiteracy. It had provided bounties for the destruction of bears and wolves, none for the destruction of ignorance, a worse enemy than any wild beast of the forest; horned cattle, horses, sheep and swine were not allowed to run at large, but the child was, so far as any public provision was made for him.

To us in this democratic age, the perusal of the correspondence, etc., dealing with the aspirations as to education expressed by those in authority in the early days of Upper Canada, leaves a bad taste in the mouth. Most, if not all, had in view Grammar Schools, “a provision for the education of the rising generation who must take their due lead in society,” “that the rising generation may be brought up competently learned and properly imbued with religion and loyalty”—“religion” being identical with the teachings of the Church of England, “loyalty” with High Tory principles.

There was from the beginning an effort on the part of the rulers to establish at public expense what we would call secondary schools, and a University—the common school for the common child was as little thought of as in England—and there was also from the beginning a more or less quiet resistance to this scheme, although the objectors do not seem to have formulated their proposals definitely.

In one case only was any poor child provided for by legislation. In the same year as Strachan arrived in Canada, the Legislature enacted a law directing that children orphaned or abandoned should be apprenticed by two Magistrates until they should be of the age of twenty-one if male, eighteen if female—the practice made familiar to us all by “*Oliver Twist*.”

In that state of affairs, private schools were opened in various parts of the Province, of various degrees of excellence and with various curricula. Those who are interested will find a reasonably full account in Dr. Hodgins’ “*Documentary History of*



Education in Upper Canada" in the first volume (now rare) of that interesting and valuable series.

As with schools, so with school books; there were few of any kind and none prescribed.

Strachan was forced to compile text books for his pupils, amongst them one on arithmetic, which was afterwards printed in Montreal by Nahum Mower, a well-known printer of the time. The volume is a 12mo of 214 pages, bound in calf, with title page as follows: "A / Concise Introduction to a Practical Arithmetic: / For the use of / Schools / By the Rev. John Strachan / Rector of Cornwall, Upper-Canada / Montreal / Printed by Nahum Mower / 1809." It is exceedingly rare: I have seen only one copy, that in the Toronto Public Library.

In the preface the reverend author tells of the genesis of his book, lays it "down as a principle that no boy can do anything right the first time, but that he must learn by the help of his Teacher, so as to be able to do it himself ever after," and gives his method of teaching arithmetic: "I divide my Pupils into separate Classes according to their progress. Each Class have one or more sums to produce every day, neatly wrought out upon their Slates. The work is carefully examined, after which I command every figure to be blotted out and the sums to be wrought out under my eye. The one whom I happen to pitch upon first, gives with an audible voice the rules and reasons for every step, and as he proceeds, the rest silently work along with him, figure for figure, but ready to correct him if he blunder that they may get his place. As soon as this one is finished, the work is again blotted out and another called upon to work the question a loud (sic) as before while the rest again proceed along with him in silence, and so on round the whole Class. By this method the principles are fixed in the mind, and he must be a very dull Boy indeed who does not understand every question thoroughly before he leave (sic) it. . . such a plan is certainly very laborious but it will be found successful, and he that is anxious to save labour ought not to be a public Teacher." (With that conception of the "public Teacher" everyone must agree.) He does not seem to have used a blackboard and indeed such a thing was then unheard of.

The Arithmetic starts off with the figures, the nine significant figures and the "cypher." The "English" Notation is employed, in which a billion is a million millions, a trillion a million billions, etc. This was an alternative method of notation in my school days, about half way between 1809 and the present; but the "French" Notation had driven it out in practice.

A synopsis of the Roman Notation follows, the use of the inverted C being not too clearly explained. Then comes Simple Addition, with the time honoured method of proof by cutting off the top addend, adding the others, and to the sum adding the omitted line. I remember about fifty-five or six years ago the "new Master" announcing with a flourish of trumpets the "new discovery" of proving addition by adding downwards. This was considered little short of blasphemy by those of us who had learned the old method of proof. We had practised it surreptitiously ourselves, many of us, but, to call it "proof"! His merits in other respects entitled the new teacher to respect, but this was a hard matter to get over.

Compound Addition is the next "Rule"; the author says in the preface "There is a difference of opinion among teachers as to the order of Teaching the Primary rules, some giving the simple and then returning to the compound, others Teaching both at once. I have been in the habit of giving all the simple rules to young Pupils before they proceeded to the compound, but to young men of discernment, I have seldom found it necessary, as they commonly understand the compound with as much facility as the simple." This gives an illuminating sidelight on the state of education in those days of voluntarism—young men of discernment learning simple addition as a matter of course.

The hundredweight was 112 pounds, as it still was in my day in weighing potash. It was when I was a lad at school that the text book caught up with the fact, and the hundredweight became in the class as in business, 100 pounds (potash was excepted); but we still revelled in the "cwt" "qr" "lb", "cuts quers and libs" as we called them—when the master was not within hearing.

The pupil was taught that jewelers divided the Troy grain into 20 mites, the mite into 24 droits, the droit into 20 periot, and the periot into 24 blanks—and in truth the Long Parlia-

ment did, July 17th, 1649, say "Twelve ounces makes a pound weight Troy; Twenty Penny weight makes an ounce; Twenty-four Grains makes a penny weight; Twenty Mites makes a Grain; Twenty-four Droits makes a Mite; Twenty Perits makes a Droit. Twenty-four Blanks makes a Perit"—as the quaint old black-letter volume of "Henry Scobell Esq.; Clerk of the Parliament . . . printed by Henry Mills and John Field, Printers to His Highness the Lord Protector, 1658" informs all who wish to know. "Perits" "Peryottes," and "Periots" are all one—but I confess I never heard of them till I read Strachan's Arithmetic.

In Cloth Measure appear the Nail, the Flemish Ell, the English Ell and the French Ell, dear to my boyhood but long since disappeared from the text-book, as from commerce still earlier.

In Long Measure three barleycorns made one inch—twelve lines it was in my day—and the Rod retained, as it did sixty years after in the book, the alternative of Pole or Perch. I never was reconciled to the  $16\frac{1}{2}$  foot "Pole"; the only pole used in practice being fifteen feet long, and employed in laying off the "furs" for the ploughmen.  $69\frac{1}{2}$  statute miles made one degree: this was reduced in my day to  $69\frac{1}{7}$  miles; Bessell's computations were not available till 1838. Our modern arithmetics scorn to give the pupil any information upon this important subject.

A table is given of French Long Measure, necessary at that time: many measurements on the left bank of the Detroit and St. Lawrence were given in French measure—"6 feet equals 1 toise; 3 toises equals 1 perch; 10 perches equals 1 arpent; 84 arpents equals 1 league." One thousand French feet equals 1,068 English feet, and the French league is 308 feet (English) longer than the English league.

The distinction between the Ale and Beer Gallon of 282 cubic inches and the Wine (or Winchester) Gallon of 231 was kept up, our present gallon, the Imperial Gallon of  $277\frac{1}{4}$ , not yet having been heard of. The Firkin, Kilderkin, Butt and Tun of Ale or Beer, the Tierce and Pipe of Wine have now all disappeared from the Arithmetic as the materials themselves seem destined soon to disappear from the country.

In Dry Measure the Pottle was two Quarts, 8 Bushels one Quarter as it is yet in the English wheat market, 5 Quarters a

Wey or Load, 2 Weys a Last, and 4 Bushels a Coomb—all but the Coomb in existence in my arithmetical days (i.e., in theory). So in Wool Weight, 7 pounds made one Clove, two Cloves one Stone, 2 Stones one Tod,  $6\frac{1}{2}$  Tods one Ways, and 2 Ways one Sack, all familiar but all vanished now.

A measure common then but long obsolete in this Province was the Minot of Canada; 96 French solid Inches made one Pot of Paris, and 20 Pots one Minot, a little ( $8\frac{3}{4}$  per cent.) larger than the Winchester bushel.

Why the reverend author inserted in a practical School Arithmetic, Tables of Hebrew, Roman and Greek Money, Weights and Measures may be left to conjecture, but the usefulness of the table of the values of gold and silver coins current in British America no one can question. Canada had no coinage of its own: it had current English guineas, half guineas, quarter guineas, crowns and shillings, Portugese Johannes (Joos), half-Johannes (Half-Joos) and moidores, Spanish doubloon, half doubloon, dollars and pistarenes, French Louis d'or, pistoles, dollars, pieces of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  livres, 36 sols (sous) and 21 sols, as well as American eagles, half eagles and dollars. All had their statutory value, not always the same as their current value.

The French computation of money was in vogue on the St. Lawrence and Detroit, appearing sometimes even in the Courts, and the table is given; "12 denier or 2 farthing make 1 sol; 20 sols or 10 pence make 1 livre; 24 livres or 20 shillings make 1 Louis or pound." Note that "sol" is the modern "sou"—in modern French the letter "u" often takes the place of the earlier "l". All above middle age will remember the Lower Canadian "sou" and "deux sous" pieces, which passed for a halfpenny (or copper) and a penny respectively; and the livre was about what the franc is to-day.

The Federal or American money table is the same as to-day with the same values; the Canadian (Halifax, Quebec or Provincial) currency was considered  $\frac{9}{10}$  the value of sterling, which was a little high. When we come to "Exchange" further remarks will be made concerning the money of the period.

Passing over the Rules, Simple and Compound Subtraction, Multiplication and Division, which call for no special remark, and also "Bills of Parcels" which is notable as giving forms of



accounts to be rendered by merchants and of receipts, promissory notes, etc., we come to "Proportion."

It is quite plain that the author did not know what proportion really is. His definition of the "Rule" is odd enough: "Simple Proportion teaches to find a fourth from three given numbers"; but his "General Rule" is indicative of a misunderstanding of the true significance of Proportion and Ratio. "Place that number for the second term which is of the same name with the number sought. Consider whether more or less be required by the question—if more, place the less of the two remaining terms for the first and the greater for the third. But if less be required, place the greater for the first and less for the third. Multiply the second and third terms together and divide the product by the first. . . ." The example is given. "If 9 yards of cloth cost £6 10s. what will 72 yards cost?" and the "proportion" is thus expressed:—

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{yds} & & \text{£} & \text{s} & & \text{yds} & \\ 9 & : & 6 & 10 & :: & 72 & \end{array}$$

The school boy (Macaulay's "School Boy" at least) knows that a ratio is an abstract fraction, a proportion an equality of ratios; and it is as absurd to write "9 yds.: £6 10s." as  $\frac{\text{"9 geese}}{\text{6}\frac{1}{2} \text{ dogs"}}$ . The Rule given above was in my day in similar words but the number "of the same name with the number sought" was placed in the third place.

Alas "Proportion" has vanished from our arithmetics, eclipsed by the "unitary method," and now none so poor as to do it reverence. I well remember the delight with which I hailed my discovery—original as I fondly thought, the result not of theoretic deduction but of practical induction from scores of experiments—that if one number is any particular fraction of another, that other is the same fraction "upside down" of the first.

Practice has shared the fate of Proportion since we use dollars and cents and not pounds, shillings and pence. Tare and Tret, Cloff and Suttle are also things of the past.

Fractions, Vulgar and Decimal, next come in for treatment, Simple Interest (with Commission, Brokerage, Insurance and Discount) complicated by the currency in use—and then Exchange. In this the very curious fact is disclosed that the currencies of

the various States of the Union were not the same; e.g., £100 Halifax cy. were equal to £160 of New York cy. and North Carolina cy., to £150 of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland cy., to £120 of Virginia, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut and Massachusetts cy., but to only £93 6s. 8d. of Georgia and South Carolina cy. The same sum was equal to £125 of Jamaica cy., £97 10s. of Irish cy. and £90 sterling (the old par of exchange). The New York currency shilling, the "York shilling" or "Yorker," equal to the one eighth of a dollar, was a well-known measure of value in my boyhood; the coin representing it was the English sixpence, just as the English shilling passed for a "Quarter" or "two York Shillings."

(I produce to you this thick octavo of a few years before Strachan's time, the "American Calculator" which British merchants were obliged to use to evaluate the various American currencies.)

The proper form of Bills of Exchange is also given in this "Rule."

Compound Interest and Annuities I pass over, and come to Alligation, Medial and Alternate, of which the present generation is growing up in blank ignorance. Simple and Double Position ("Rule of False") are in the same case, and wisely so; no one can understand them unless he has a smattering of "Universal Arithmetic" as Newton calls Algebra; and then he knows better methods.

Square and Cube Root, Progression (Arithmetical and Geometrical) with a very fair amount of Mensuration and Land Surveying, close the arithmetic proper. A curious appendix follows—how to find the Golden Number, the Epact, the Moon's Age, the Cycle of the Sun, the Year of Indiction, the Julian Period, the Dominical or Sunday Letter, Easter Sunday—some of which looks to the Prayer Book and the rest is useless.

The proof reading of this little volume is not good. Its defects are explained by "the distance of the author." Cornwall was in those days more remote from Montreal than it is now from Chicago. Some of the spelling is accounted for in that way, as "Capitol" "Venitian" "Marriner" "Intejer"; but some seem to be simply the old form, e.g., "Cloathing," "Oisters," "Cyder," "Compleated," and the archaic "hath."

Occasionally the Scottish origin of the author peeps out; "the Curator of an Estate" is spoken of; the relative size of the Scotch and the English acre is given, and compared with that of the French Arpent, the last two of which were well known and in use in Upper Canada, the Scotch acre never.

Some long-forgotten, or at least long discontinued practices are referred to—the blacksmith makes nails, he charges for making a crane; cochineal was an article of commerce as it was before the era of aniline dyes and may be again; the farmer sowed hemp, the culture of which was fostered in the Province to supply the British navy, then still "Hearts of Oak," with cordage; the Commissary bought supplies; Cyder, Mead and Perry had to be measured; tea was worth  $7/6$  or  $8/$  (\$1.50 or \$1.60) per pound (green tea only \$1.10); the list of household expenses contained, as of course, an item "paid the brewer"; the draper sometimes supplied "sticks of hair" (whatever that may be) and most shopkeepers' accounts against farmers were settled in whole or in part by potash, which formed a part of most shipments out of the country. What the old settler would have done without a market for potash is hard to say. The product of the burning of the forest saved many a man from ruin in early days. While the day of clearing *en bloc* was about over in my youth, and most of the clearing was for cordwood, I have seen many a pile of logs of splendid beech and maple blazing, turning perfectly good cordwood into comparatively valueless ashes. The potash industry declined with the destruction of the forest and got its death blow from the results of scientific enquiry and the discovery of ready made alkali in large masses.

While the amount paid for beer for the household would shock our modern sense of propriety, what are we to say about the "Gentlemen of Quebec" who without a word of rebuke from the author went to a Horse Race, gained a prize of ten guineas, lost by betting against A £29 11s. 4d., won of B £39 12s. 8d., and lost to C £17 8s. 5d.?

He played a game for those in days to come.

To point no moral—but to frame a "sum."

Some of the problems—"questions" or "sums"—are rather quaintly expressed; for example, on page 191, question 41 reads:

“In the midst of a field of luxuriant grass  
 I rented an acre to tether my ass  
 Pray what length of tether that, feeding around,  
 The donkey may graze just his acre of ground?”

In our modern text books the question would be most prosaically put “What is the radius of a circle whose area is one acre?”—but the old schoolmaster, with all his siccidity, knew the value of interesting language.

I well remember a problem put to myself: “A man had a gas well six hundred feet deep which he dug up and cut into post holes eight feet deep; how many post holes had he?” This “sum” excited my indignation then; and I find the relics of that indignation even now—because I solved it!

The Reverend John Strachan—afterwards to be the Right Reverend John Toronto—deserved well of his country when he wrote this arithmetic, like himself, practical, ignoring mere theory, accurate if dry, a creature of its time, useful rather than curious or ingenious.

The decision he mentions in his Preface to abandon the design he had formed and in part executed, to add the theory, was probably wise. If anyone has yet written a theoretical arithmetic for use in schools which is worth the paper on which it is printed, it has not been my good fortune to see it.

The author's views on higher education are elaborated in an octavo pamphlet of 45 pages; “A / Letter / to / The Reverend A. N. Bethune / Rector of Cobourg / on the / Management of Grammar Schools,” / By John Strachan, D.D., LL.D., / Archdeacon of York /, Printed by R. Stanton / 1829,” which is not common, but by no means so rare as the Arithmetic. The curriculum he suggests for the district schools is extensive; and it is interesting to compare with that the curriculum laid down by Dr. Egerton Ryerson on assuming the Presidency of Victoria College in 1842.

(See an octavo pamphlet of 34 pages, “Inaugural address / on the / Nature and Advantages / of an / English and Liberal Education / delivered by / The Rev. Egerton Ryerson / at the Opening of / Victoria College / June 21, 1842 / with an account of the opening services, Course / of Studies, Terms, etc., in the College / “Seek first the goods of the mind, and the rest shall



be supplied, or no way / prejudiced by their absence" Lord Bacon / Toronto / By order of the Board of Trustees and Visitors / Printed at the Guardian Office, 9 Wellington Buildings / 1842." The pamphlet is not rare; my own copy is a presentation copy from Ryerson to the Hon. John Neilson, a well-known politician of the time.)

NOTE: It may not be without interest to note the price of certain commodities in the York (Toronto) and Kingston markets a little later. (I have no reliable figures for the earliest years of the century.)

James Strachan, of Aberdeen, a brother of the Reverend Author, not having seen him for some years, came to Upper Canada to visit him in 1819, and on his return to Scotland published a small book: "A Visit / to the / Province of Upper Canada / in / 1819 / by / James Strachan / Aberdeen . . . / 1820." 8 vo., pp. viii + 9 to 224. The book did not recommend itself to the celebrated Robert Fleming Gourlay, who found in the one chapter devoted to him and his doings "32 falsehoods, 38 untruths, besides misrepresentations throughout." Certainly that particular chapter is not very credible or creditable—James Strachan shared the strong prejudice felt by his brother toward Gourlay, and the prejudice pervades and stains all their dealings with him.

But there is no reason to doubt the accuracy of the market prices of commodities quoted by James Strachan; I have compared them with figures from other sources of information, and there is no substantial difference (the prices are given in Halifax currency, £1 equals \$4.00, 1s. equals 20c.); green tea per pound 5/0; souchon 7/6; hyson 8/9; loaf sugar 1/3; muscovado 0/11; maple 0/7½; candles 1/6; coffee 2/2; spirits per gal. 7/6; reduced rum 5/0; brandy 12/6; treacle 6/3; men's shoes per pair 7/6; women's do. 5/0; blankets, all sizes 20/0;—" *O fortunatos nimium sua si bona norint Agricolas*"—with potash and pearl ash in the Montreal market at £30 and £34 per ton respectively, and women's shoes a dollar a pair!

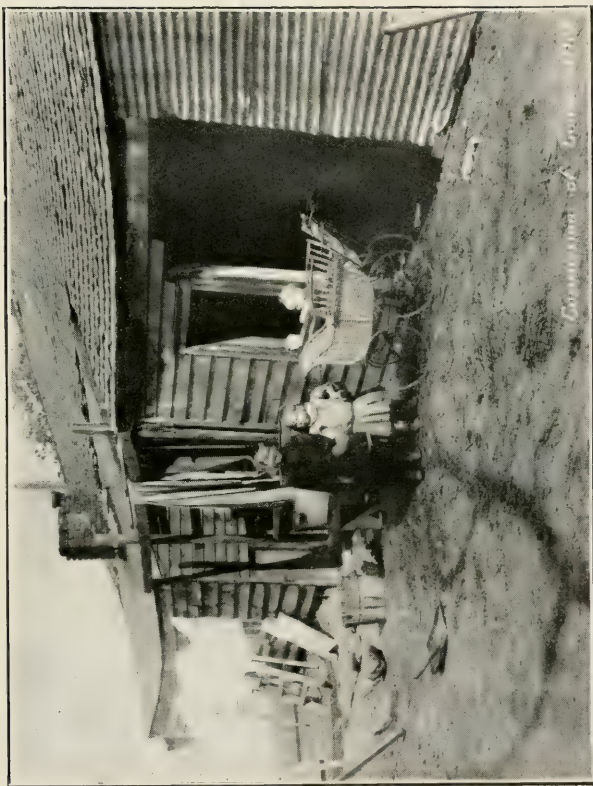
But every shield has two sides: beef was per pound 0/5; mutton 0/6; pork 0/7½; fowls per pair 3/0; cheese per pound 0/6; and butter 1/0; eggs per dozen 1/3; potatoes per bushel 2/0; oats 3/0; turnips 1/0; hay 40/0 per ton; and wood 10/0 per cord.

## CONSERVATION OF LIFE AND NATURAL RESOURCES IN CANADA.

MR. THOMAS ADAMS.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—The question of conservation of life and natural resources is one which, I think, should have a peculiar interest to the members of the Ontario Educational Association. The Commission of Conservation of Canada was created in 1909 for the purpose of surveying the natural resources of the Dominion and advising regarding the conservation and utilization of these resources for the public welfare. You are concerned with training the children of Canada. We are concerned with the acquisition of correct knowledge for the purpose of advising and educating politicians to legislate on sound principles in regard to the conservation of our resources, the preservation of human life and the lessening of preventable diseases. You are concerned with teaching the young idea how to shoot; we are concerned with preventing some old ideas from shooting. We are trying to construct new ideals built upon a foundation of investigation, research and expert knowledge.

In a democratic country it is essential that the citizen should be properly trained. It is important that you, through your work, should build up an intelligent citizenship. Another essential is that the laws of the country shall be such that those citizens which you have trained can secure the fullest liberty, equality and justice under our system of government. Guizot, in a lecture in 1812, said that the most perfect form of government was a federal government, but it was the most difficult kind of government because it required the highest level of intelligence on the part of the citizens. That view gives an indication of your responsibility. In a democratic country you have to train the rulers of the nation—men and women who shall be not merely under national guidance, but who shall themselves govern the destinies of the nation. We, on our part, are trying to start from the other end. We are dealing with questions of public health, minerals, lands, forests, animal life, preservation of birds, fisheries, co-operation in agriculture and others. We are dealing with these matters from the the end of government. You are training the governors and the governed. Some day in



Toronto Slums—Three-roomed 'house'—rent \$9.00 per month.





the near future your work shall meet ours. Your pupils shall have grown up, and our laws shall have come into force; then the two shall meet. That will be a great turning point in the social welfare of this Dominion if we both do our work properly. We are still in the formative period of civilization in Canada in a certain sense, although we are very advanced compared with other countries in the early stage of their existence. And in that formative period the work you and we are doing is of the highest importance to the country.

I shall endeavour to indicate some of the activities of the Commission of Conservation. I have said already that public health is one of the subjects with which we deal. In a very early stage in the existence of the Commission the Chairman, Sir Clifford Sifton, and the members representing all parts of the Dominion, came to the conclusion that the most important natural resource to conserve was that of human life. There is nothing so essential for the welfare of a country as the maintenance of a high standard of life—a high physical standard, a high mental standard, a high moral standard—in other words the maintenance of a high degree of character on the part of its people. And when we turn from that human problem to the problems connected with the land, minerals and forests, we might ask ourselves. Why do we want to conserve minerals? Why do we want to conserve our forests? Why do we want to conserve our water powers and our fisheries? Surely not that men may grow rich—but that our people may grow in happiness and prosperity and virtue and that these things may not be exploited for the few but administered for the many; that the citizens you educate may live in an environment which will enable them to take advantage of the education given to them. It is very often true that the physical circumstances in which children live make your educational work difficult, and endanger the life of the child that is growing up in our crowded cities. We have in Canada to-day the potential slum; we are creating the conditions that have become a menace to many European cities, and we have less reason to have these conditions because we have not the same circumstances to produce them. We have had a new country; we have unlimited land; we have great resources; we have ample opportunity to keep the slum away and yet to-day we have the menace with us.

## PUBLIC HEALTH AND HOUSING CONDITIONS.

I want to try and indicate what the problem is and how we are trying to solve it. We need to secure some improvement in our public health, in our housing conditions and in the welfare of our growing communities. We have in Ontario one or two large cities but we have three hundred or four hundred small cities, towns and villages which are larger towns and cities in the making, and where we can still start to-day to prevent the possibility of slum conditions. We cannot do much, perhaps, to correct existing evils except by a slow and expensive process. We can, however, do a great deal to prevent these evils being created in new areas. I have always said that in Canada our small towns, towns like Renfrew and Simcoe and St. Mary's and St. Thomas, and Stratford, and a score of others that I could name, we have conditions which are as healthy as you will find in any small towns throughout the world—sites which are as beautiful as you will find anywhere. But when we allow our cities to grow as large as Montreal or Toronto we repeat the same evils of overcrowding, bad sanitation, and creation of conditions which do not tend to the uplifting or improving of our populations. We have the condition of the great extreme between poverty and wealth, just as bad as it is in the older countries.

Such conditions as we have in parts of Toronto do not tend to lay proper foundations for the next generation, or to enable children to grow up as useful citizens.. You can see children who are not physically capable of enjoying the advantages of our educational institutions. A child is very much influenced by its home—by the surroundings of its home. You teachers have to fight against all the bad environment in which these children are growing. They could and should have more of God's sunshine and fresh air. They want more garden space and better surroundings than it is possible to get in the crowded parts of large cities. But we cannot flatter ourselves that this problem is merely one of the crowded central districts, and is therefore the product of past neglect. In the suburbs, where it is not necessary to create bad conditions, we are to-day making conditions almost worse than they are in the older parts of the city. In Ottawa we have comparatively little of



View of a beautiful and still unspoiled river valley in the town of Renfrew, Ontario.





what you might call slum conditions in the centre of the city, but just over the border of the city area you will find a piece of land within a stone's throw of the best suburb of that city where houses are being built upon an undrained swamp. Parts where they build is filled up three feet with garbage. You can see the garbage itself underneath the houses—under new homes built in 1915 for a people who by this time of day should know the value of sanitation, of pure air and of good surroundings and healthy conditions. A man would probably take more care of the animals on his farm as regards shelter than can be taken of the children who are housed under conditions of that kind. Consider what we suffer—what we lose—as a result of preventative disease caused by those bad conditions.

Sometimes you hear of a clean-up week. We not only want the individual to keep his back yard clean but we want our cities to realize the responsibility of keeping the civic front yard clean and preserving the banks of our rivers. Some of you may come from Renfrew. There on the river there is delightful natural scenery which is one of the most attractive views in the whole of Ontario. The land is not suitable for growing anything on, nor is it suitable for building houses on. Only two things can happen to it; it may be destroyed through carelessness or it can be preserved for the benefit of the people of Renfrew. The people of Renfrew, I think, are going to try and preserve it. Some cities and towns first of all destroy the beauty that they have and then they spend a great deal of money to try and create some artificial form of beauty to take its place. We do not need to spend money to get beauty in Canada; we only have to spend common sense to keep what we have.

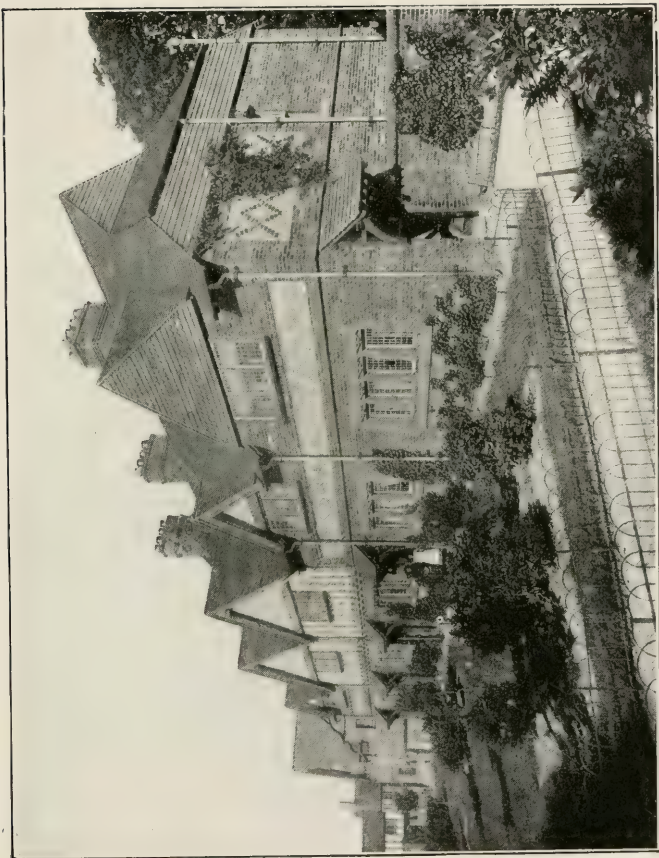
#### SPECULATION IN LAND.

We have, unfortunately, in many of our cities to suffer from undue speculation in real estate. This speculation does not pay real estate men in the end. It does not pay anybody connected with the development and it injures the public to a much greater degree than most of us realize. An unsatisfactory condition of things is created by real estate booms such as have been organized in different parts of Ontario—we are having a little one at Renfrew just now but we are trying to keep that within proper limits.

There has been one at Ojibway, near Windsor, where the United States Steel Corporation have purchased a site for creating a new town. You are invited to invest your money in lots there, with a promise of abundant increase in value. You are told that almost overnight homes will be finished and occupied, prosperous banks and stores and churches will be built, sidewalks will be laid and a great many other things done. What you are not told is that these things have to be paid for by somebody other than those who develop the real estate and that it is really the purchaser of the lots who will have to pay for them. We sometimes forget that the cost of all local improvements falls on those who purchase the land for building purposes. I am not suggesting that we should stop investing money in real estate, but we do want to get a sounder and more equitable system and we want to try and educate the children as well as grown up people in Canada that gambling in this form is no better than gambling in any other form. To purchase land for a home is a proper thing, but those who purchase land for speculation with the result that other people have to pay two or three times what they ought to pay for the site for their home is not a satisfactory thing in any country. I have seen a woman begging for bread although she owned the site of her shack, because all she could save had to be used to pay the interest on the mortgage on her property. And that woman would have been much better off if she were renting a small room or two than having the weight of that incubus on her shoulders and preventing her getting bread for her children. Now that the land fever is over and we are settling down to pay for the war, to consider our responsibility to readjust conditions after the war, to provide for our returned soldiers and to provide healthy conditions for the growing children that we are educating, we have got to look around and take stock and revise some of our methods.

#### TOWN PLANNING.

We must start our new towns in the right way and see that they are planned and the roads well constructed; we must control the extensions of our existing cities and towns; we must build our cities a little less after the pattern of New York and a little more after the pattern of the old European cities like Edinburgh,



Workmen's dwellings at Port Sunlight, England—Four rooms and kitchen—rent about \$7.00 per month.





where instead of skyscrapers dominating the sky line we have the towers and monuments of those who are famed in literature and art and expressing the patriotism and spirituality of the people, rather than their worship of money. New York is the pattern being followed by cities like Winnipeg—the city on the prairies, with millions of acres of land all around it, yet in its high skyscrapers people cannot get sufficient light and air, because of the seeming scarcity of land. In New York the tide has turned against the skyscraper. The real estate men, the business men, are now condemning the high building at the very time when we in Canada are adopting them. High buildings are beautiful if properly designed. While coming up the harbour of New York at night the grandeur of the high buildings is impressive and not without great beauty. But there the people are working in artificial light from morning to night. There they crowd in stuffy rooms by day and from there they depart into the crowded street and into the noisy underground or overhead railways on the way to their tenement homes. It is just as essential for these people, travelling long distances many of them, that they should have healthy work rooms and healthy offices as it is that they should have healthy homes. Most of them have neither—because of overcrowding.

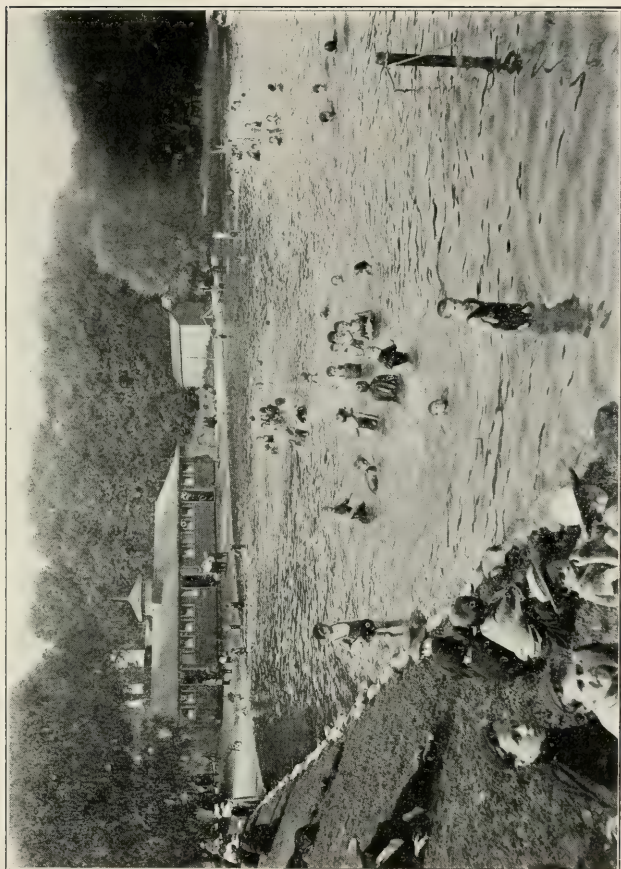
Now, in Canada we need to guard ourselves against these things; we need not be crowded together; we have plenty of room for development. We have in Ottawa a beautiful skyline and we want to preserve it. We do not want skyscrapers standing up above the turrets of our Parliament Buildings. We sometimes hear the arguments that a man should be permitted to do as he likes with his own land. Frequently the liberty of one man can only be enjoyed as a result of destroying the liberty of another; the balance between the two must be held by the public authority in the interests of the liberty of both.

What a fine thing it is for a child to go to school in a city like Edinburgh, with its beautiful architecture and the spacious surroundings to its public buildings. As you pass day by day along Princes Street you see the public spirit and civic consciousness of the people expressed in its buildings, and one cannot help but feel that the inspiration which youth derives from such beautiful structures has a refining and educative influence.

One of the disappointing things about our Ontario towns, is that we do not look after business streets as well as we might. We try to keep our residential boulevards pleasant, but I think we might do a little more to tidy up and improve the streets where the stores and schools and public buildings are. How much more pleasant to walk along the kind of business street you can see in Antwerp, Paris, Edinburgh or the small town of Cheltenham where the business streets are like parkways—nor less useful and business-like because they are beautiful. We are very fond in Canada of through streets, streets that are straight and have no ending. I think Toronto has in Yonge Street and some other streets which lead you eight or ten miles away into the country without any break. Now, properly planned towns streets should not have all through streets. We waste hundreds of thousands of dollars to get straight and continuous streets where they are not needed, but are, on the contrary, objectionable. How much more pleasant it is sometimes to have a closed-in effect, with a beautiful building filling up the end of a street. For traffic purposes a street should radiate as it extends outwards from a centre. This helps traffic and improves the appearance.

In the development of the city we require to exercise greater economy than at present. Instead of having one fixed width of street for all streets we want many variations in width to suit different conditions. Our main arteries ought to be wide and our residential roads ought to be narrow. We have in Ontario a fixed minimum width of 66 feet. That is a fairly good average width to have, but because it is a good average it means that our main arteries ought to be wider and our short residential streets narrower.

In England a great deal is being done to solve the housing problem and we have to consider the English schemes in connection with future development in Canada. We cannot blame many of the cities in the Old Land for having crowded slum conditions. The slum conditions have been handed down to them from mediæval times. What we have are of recent creation. The gardens, cities, suburbs and villages in England represent the most forward movement in housing reform perhaps in the world. One thing they teach us is that good and durable houses



The bathing place of Stratford, Ont., in the public park near the centre of the town.





cannot be provided on an economic basis for the working classes if you have an expensive system of land development and street making. In Canada in some of our towns it costs as much to get to our homes as it does to actually build the homes. You will understand what I mean if any of you have paid local improvement taxes for ten years for an asphalt street, concrete sidewalk and boulevard. You pay nearly as much money for access to your houses as for the building. That is a condition of things which is economically wrong. We ought to have more money spent on the building and on sanitation and have inexpensive streets and simple carriage drives instead of wide streets where traffic conditions do not require them.

The garden city of Letchworth, England, is specially interesting as an example of housing reform. In 1903 a company purchased 3,800 acres of land and started to build a new city. There are now 12,000 people living there and about 30 factories in operation. They have pure water, a good drainage system, electricity and gas. The cost of the land for the site of the city was \$200 per acre. You cannot erect more than eight houses to an acre; that is about \$25 per house for bare land. On top of that there is the cost of local improvements, but there is an arrangement in the articles of Association of the Company, which has carried out that experiment, that all profit which is made after 5 per cent. is paid to the shareholders has to be returned to the community. The scheme is being carried out for the purpose of creating a new city in which the whole of the increment of value due to its conversion from agricultural to building land shall revert to the community for its benefit.

There is an area of about 2,600 acres permanently reserved as an agricultural belt round the Garden city and definitely excluded from being built upon. The aim is to have a town of 30,000 inhabitants on 1,200 acres and a belt of 2,600 acres dedicated in perpetuity for agricultural purposes, round the town. In England they realize that the agricultural problem and the city problem is one; that you cannot go on destroying the valuable land around the edge of your cities by cutting it up into lots and at the same time expect to get vegetables and agricultural produce at low rates in your towns. Other things being equal, the land on which the most valuable produce can be grown for

the population of a big city is the land which is near the city. In Toronto and Ottawa there is a large area of land which has been thrown idle because you have plotted it into building land 20 or 30 years before it is needed for building, and therefore that land has been thrown out of cultivation and meanwhile we import a large part of our vegetables from distant places including the States.

#### GERMAN TOWN PLANNING.

Perhaps you have heard of German town-planning. Beware of that kind of planning, with its ostentatious streets, beautiful buildings, and excellent pavements, side by side with some of the worst housing conditions in Europe. We sometimes hear about German efficiency; but there is another side to the story. There are 65 per cent. of the people of Berlin living in one or two roomed dwellings as against about 25 per cent. in London. There are 756 people out of every 1,000 living in tenement dwellings of four or more storeys in that city. You get some idea there of the fact that side by side with ostentatious public streets you can get very bad housing conditions, and, indeed, that costly streets cause bad housing. Now, we want above all to preserve the home life of the people. To get healthy homes is the fundamental thing in all our town planning rather than to get fine architectural effects and spaciousness in our public ways. Let us have these things by all means but not at the expense of the home.

#### AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS.

In our rural districts also there are conditions which are not quite satisfactory. One cannot say that our rural villages have as healthy conditions as we would like them to have. The Commission of Conservation is endeavouring by education and enquiry to improve these conditions. We send lecturers to different parts of the country; we have meetings of farmers in the villages. We demonstrate to them how to grow crops by proper rotation, how to clean land, the great value of having good stock and of saving labour. We show them while it is a good thing to have one man driving four horses and two implements as a means of saving labour, it is a bad thing to have two men and one cow to



View of central portion of Edinburgh, showing Princess Street on the left, the Scott monument, and Calton Hill in the background, the Royal Institution and Royal Academy on the mound built across the valley, and the principal railway passing underneath the mound.





do the same work in a much longer time. We try to demonstrate to them the value of having good homes. One farmer in Ontario was visited some time ago by a leading lawyer from Ottawa. He was surprised to see the farmer's fine house and to note that he actually used his public rooms, instead of living in his kitchen. The lawyer asked: "Why have you such a fine home? Why do you make your house so pleasant? Farmers as a rule don't live so comfortably." And the farmer told him that he had lived long enough to realize that if he wanted to keep his boy at home he had to make the conditions on the farm as pleasant as those in the homes visited by the boy in the city. There is sound common sense in that. If the farmers want to keep their boys at home they want to make them feel, when they come back from the High School or the market in the city, that the farmer does not live in the kitchen because he has to, and that he is just as self-respecting and as valuable a citizen as any lawyer or professional man. We should encourage the farmers to have gardens. I was told when I came over from the Old Country that you could not grow hedges in Canada, but I find that beautiful hedges are grown right out on the prairies of the West. We not only want town planning but we want country planning. We want our townships laid out in such a way that the farmer will live near to the school and church and able to get social and co-operative facilities. It can be done; it simply needs planning. The question of making better roads is very largely one of reducing the length of roads in our townships by proper planning.

#### CONSERVATION OF BIRD LIFE AND FORESTS.

We have other activities in connection with the Conservation Commission as well as that of trying to plan our cities, plan our agricultural areas, improve agriculture and secure better housing conditions. We are trying to preserve bird life. Artificial nests are provided in the woods in order to preserve the kind of birds we want, and researches are constantly being made by experts. There is the problem of conserving the forests. We used to think that the size of Canada made it apparent that our forests were much greater than those of United States and yet we have only about one-quarter of the forest area of that country.

When we cut down the forests we should clear up the waste in order to lessen the danger of fires. Whole forests are constantly being destroyed as a result of carelessness. If a fire occurs once or twice the whole vegetable life is destroyed and the land becomes a bare wilderness of rock with no power of recovery. We must conserve our forests in future and try and reproduce the young timber in them. Something may be done by re-planting even in the case where absolute destruction has taken place. Much land that is of no use for agricultural purposes is excellent for the purpose of producing timber. In recent years, largely as a result of the work of the Commission of Conservation much has been done in the direction of forest protection, and fire losses have been greatly lessened. The railways are being cleared for many yards back from the track in order to prevent forest fires. Railway companies, like the C. P. R., are also growing timber as a means of preventing snowdrifts on their permanent ways. Maple hedges are much better for the purpose of keeping snow off the railway tracks than the ugly board fences you mostly see. A hedge is not only better protection but, of course, it is very much better in appearance. The power of recovery of the timber in a forest area even after one fire is wonderful, but the power of the forest to re-create itself when it has not been damaged by fire is still more wonderful. When we cut down the mature and valuable trees in the forest, we should leave behind us the best possible conditions for the growth of the young forest trees and the new life which are together to produce the timber wealth of the future. Future generations demand it of us that we protect and conserve the forests.

You are rearing the young life of our cities and villages just as we are trying, in a case like this, to protect the young life of the forest. The older lives will have to give way sooner or later to the axe of the great lumber man when he comes to reap his harvest, and young lives are growing up to take the place of those who will be gone in another generation. May we in Canada provide the conditions in which our youth will get not only good instruction in the schools, but healthy environment in their homes; where they can root themselves in deep soil and grow up strong in character and able to fulfil their duties as citizens.

## ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT

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### *HAS THE EDUCATION IN OUR SCHOOLS PROVED OF VALUE TO THE YOUTH OF OUR COUNTRY AT THIS GREAT CRISIS?*

MRS. H. S. STRATHY.

Are teachers satisfied at this time that their work has influenced, as they would desire, the young mind of the country in this great crisis?

Looking at the gallant, ever-widening, never-ceasing stream that now for twenty months has gone from our shores, and that will continue to go in ever increasing volume until after victory crowns our armies, I feel sure our teachers, seeing these citizens in arms, many of them only a year or two ago boys in their own classes, may well thank God and take courage. The very qualities that have distinguished our men at the front and have won from their British and French comrades such unstinted praise—their power of initiative, their endurance, their capacity for adapting the most unlikely material to new needs, are all qualities that have been fostered and encouraged by our system of education. Take the physical courage of our men. We remember the Battle of Ypres; we know the bravery displayed there requires no discussion. It was one of the supreme facts of the war, resolute and self-surprising, ready for every emergency, able to face the almost overwhelming horrors of gas and shell-fire, able to look fear in the face, prompt to use the smallest advantage with the sangfroid and composure of veterans. Then, when we realize that many men in these battalions had but lately left our own schools, we acknowledge that the education that had unconsciously trained them for such an adventure was an education of high ideals and of great value.

On the battlefield of Flanders the demonstration was made for all time of the value of the cadet movement to Canada. The

movement that began in 1879, and after some years of discouragement came to greater strength in the summer of 1898, and that, thanks to the unfailing enthusiasm of such men as Dr. James L. Hughes, Principal Hagarty and others, had, in December, 1910, 265 corps to its credit with a total strength of 525 companies and 21,000 men, has proved its use to the country.

To take higher and ethical qualities. Since our men went to the front we know they have had weeks and months of dreary monotony and what might easily have become trench "staleness." In like trying times many a citizen army has gone to pieces, morally and spiritually, but our men, in their long days of enforced inaction, have developed, we learn from those who are on the spot, more and more self-restraint, self-respect, self-knowledge and self-sufficiency, and we feel again that these are gifts which the education acquired in our schools has been a powerful factor in bringing to life.

This great war will change education as it has changed everything else in this world. In what particular exactly we cannot yet say. How to explain the war to children, and young children, is an urgent problem in every school to-day, and how to inculcate the principles of patriotism that will be adapted to the new world in which our boys and girls will grow up must be a question of deepest concern to every teacher. We who look on feel confident that you will find a solution of the problem. We know that our boys and girls will be taught a patriotism that will produce humane and heroic self-resourceful men and women, and we know above all that they will have from you that training of character which is the chief aim and glory of school life, and so we are confident that through this troubled time of storm and stress our country will march forward to its destiny on the feet of its little children, and that:—

"Away down the river a hundred miles or more,

Other little children shall bring our boats to shore."

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## PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION

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### PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

JAS. A. UNDERHILL, PRINCIPAL DREW SCHOOL,  
FORT WILLIAM.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—I wish to thank you for the honour you conferred upon me last year in electing me as President of this, the largest and most influential section of the Ontario Educational Association. I realize that I have failed in many of the things I should have done and which I purposed to do, but I have done what I could throughout the year to further the interests of the teachers of this Province and have tried to bring together a programme of instruction and uplift and to give every member an opportunity of raising any question deemed of importance and submitting the same for discussion.

My address is not academic but rather a review of the work of this Section, its success and failures and necessities and the general trend of necessity in the Public Schools.

There have been many things impressed on me during the year, and so far as possible the most important of these have been embodied in the programme and treated more fully than I could hope to in the short space allotted to me and in much abler manner. But I wish to emphasize a *few* things; particularly for the sake of the delegates many of whom are new every year and are not familiar with the work of this Association.

During the period of my experience in this Section, it has grown from a small meeting in a room, to the gymnasium at the Normal School, then to the large hall in the University and now to this gathering in this great hall in this great building which I hope marks the beginning of another period of growth and expansion. And in passing let me say that no greater mark of progress in education exists in this Province than this building and this school.

During all these years of enlargement and progress the work done by this Section has been chiefly along three lines.

1. Dissemination of information in our meetings by the discussion by leaders of every new move of importance.

2. Uplift and enthusiasm by our meeting together in social intercourse and by hearing able men discuss important topics.

3. Our growing influence in the direction and management of the Public School education of the Province; and to my mind this last has been the most important and had the greatest influence on our profession.

We have had some say in the making and authorization of books and have been invited by the Superintendent of Education to assist in framing the curriculum and regulations governing school affairs.

Note well the growing influence of this Section with the Education Department and consider carefully before you decide to break up into smaller groups lest this influence be weakened.

Along this line; many teachers have felt for some time the need of closer consultation and a start was made to form a Principals' Section. To meet this desire we have tried this year the three "Round Table Conferences" held yesterday afternoon and judging from what I was able to see of them, I believe they were a success and made a good start towards solving some of our difficulties in the past. It is for you to say whether they shall be continued or not.

In my opinion we have spent too much time, in criticism, in tearing away at the same old books, the same old examinations, same old two-by-four picayune subjects and not enough time on constructive work, on the broader outlook to find out the essentials in our work and in developing greater utility in our school system. Leave the details for County Associations to thrash out, this annual gathering should concern itself with the larger subjects and bring our influence to bear on solving the greater problems and prevent much of the foolish fads and experimentation. Perhaps in the past the teacher's attitude towards education has been critical rather than constructive, too much analysis and not enough production and composition.

A good motto for us would be:—

*"Co-operate and Assist—Not Criticize and Find Fault."*

You will remember, that last year Dr. Robertson in his address to the General Association, made a plea for a change in the whole idea of Education: to make it the expression of some inward desires and make pupils able to do as well as to think. This has been one of the great impressions borne in on me all this year and here at our meetings is the best place for teachers to voice their experiences, inward desires, initiative and constructive doubt.

Mark this word "initiative." I shall say a little more on it later.

#### ORGANIZED PLAYGROUNDS.

The organization and supervision of playgrounds and playrooms is a thought that is receiving much attention at present. That is why you had the pleasure of hearing Dr. Brown. And what is true of playgrounds for holidays is equally true of our school playgrounds and playrooms; to prevent many wrong things and to direct to what is more beneficial. In my experience, girls need supervision while at play quite as much as boys do, and rural schools need it as much as urban schools. You can't put work on your boards in readiness for the next lessons and supervise playgrounds too—well omit the work on the boards but do not neglect your children while they are at play.

#### UNUSUAL CHILD.

Much has been said and written during the past year about the "Unusual Child" and "Retardation," and about classes for defectives, etc.

*Defective pupils* have had injustice done to them in several ways:—

1. By being given tasks too difficult and they sit in sullen idleness or malicious wickedness.
2. They are an injustice to their class-mates in work and morals.
3. They are an injustice to their teachers.
4. They are an injustice to the parents of normal children.

The experience of every teacher, I am sure, is that too much time is spent on the backward pupils, no matter what the reason

for their backwardness, whether from natural deficiency, poor health, lack of energy or outside surroundings. Every teacher spends more time on the backward pupil than on the *clever, capable* pupil. I want to make an earnest plea for these *clever* pupils. They never get a fair show, they never get a chance to do their best, to get their full talents at work, to find out what is in them and what they are best adapted for in the world. They should *have* more time and the weak pupils less, "Their king and country need *them*" more than they do the weaklings.

Much injustice has been shown the schools and the teachers owing to a wrong viewpoint in regard of these two classes of pupils.

But criticism is necessary to make people think and to make the teachers take careful stock of what they are doing and how they are striving to do it.

And just at this juncture of our country and our schools we need to think carefully of what class of men and women we are turning out. Are we turning out the kind our country needs? For many years to come, there will not be a very large leisure class in this country and education for polish and refinement must be kept in the background and education for utility be kept well to the front. Our course of study may soon need careful revision along these lines. We must be practical.

"The world bestows its big prizes, both in money and honours, for but one thing, and that is *Initiative*." What is Initiative?

1. It is doing the right thing without being told.
2. But next to doing the right thing without being told is to do it when you are told once. That is carrying the message to Garcia; those who can carry a message get high honour, but their pay is not always in proportion.

3. Next there are those who never do a thing till they are told twice; such get no honours and small pay.

4. Next there are those who do the right thing only when necessity kicks from behind. This kind gets no honour, a pittance for pay and spends most of its time polishing a bench with a hard luck story.

5. Still lower down is the fellow who will not do the right thing when some one goes along to show him how and stays to see that he does it. He is always out of a job, unless he happens



to have a rich pa. Which of these classes are you turning out? The power to live a great book is greater than the power to write one. The power to write a great book is greater than the power to read and enjoy one written by someone else.

What is *important* and *essential*?

People do not *permanently differ* about facts which are open to the scrutiny of all. Differences as to fact disappear when men look at the same thing from the same point at the same time. People *differ permanently* about theories and opinions, which have not been, or cannot be, subject to the touchstone of fact. If a general agreement can first be reached as to basic, significant facts, agreement as to proper educational policies cannot be far off. As a basis for a policy, three facts upon which all agree, are more valuable than 100 facts—vouched for by experts—be they never so expert—which do not receive general assent.

I believe that one of these three facts upon which all agree is the very thing for which this building and this school stand: that men for all trades must have as thorough training as the doctor, lawyer, etc. Always the State has largely paid for the education of the gentlemen, of the doctor, lawyer, etc.; paid for it out of the taxes of rich and poor alike, while no provision has been made for the training of the mechanic, etc, and often, too often, when this same professional man reaches the \$9,000 stage he looks down on the \$2.00 man who helped put him there. This should not be and should not be possible. The man who earns his living and pays his debts and leads a decent life is as good as any man in this country and we do not want any shoddy aristocracy, or upper class to scorn him and push him down. This school stands for giving the other fellow an equal chance, financially and socially. The man who executes designs skilfully and perfectly is as necessary as the designer, for to quote a well known authority, "The heart may conceive and the head devise in vain if the hand be not prompt to execute the design," but knowledge, grounded on accuracy aided by labour and prompted by perseverance, will finally overcome all difficulties, raise ignorance from despair and establish happiness in the paths of science. I am pleased to see that the Toronto schools and several other places are endeavouring to carry out the preparatory work of this kind. "Hand Work," as outlined in the curriculum, and in the rural

schools the elementary agriculture as preparatory for the Ontario Agricultural College to prepare for better farming.

The estimate has been made that the industries of the United States would absorb, if they could get them, two hundred thousand skilled men a year that they cannot now secure. That there is a thirst for this sort of education among our young men is shown by the thousands who are taking correspondence school courses in technical lines, the growth of our great land grant colleges, which give agricultural and engineering courses, the popularity of continuation and night schools wherever they have been established, the growing strength of our polytechnic schools, the farmers' short courses and farmers' weeks, the manual training movement in the public schools, the Y.M.C.A. night classes, the voluntary educational organization among men like the stationary engineers and a thousand other symptoms. I wonder if this will be the solution of the problem of how to stop so many boys from falling out of school at so early an age.

#### MEDICAL.

Much attention has been given of late to prevention of the spread of disease among school children and the care of the health, by the appointment of a doctor to visit the schools or through the Medical Health Officer and nurses and specialists, dentists, opticians, etc. Dr. MacMurchy has dealt with this subject last year and this. Our experience has been that a competent nurse is by far the most efficient and in addition to her duties as nurse in the schools she has been the best truant officer we have ever had.

There has been a persistent effort to get this department away from the control of the Boards of Education and the teachers and place it under the Medical Health Department. That must not be. We must stand together on this in this Association and as teachers I hope a motion will be carried through this Section expressing our views strongly on this point.

When the Curriculum Committee, named by this Association on the invitation of the Department of Education was dealing with this matter, we went carefully into it and tried to safeguard the Principal's authority so that an outsider could not come into

the school and overrule the Principal and teachers and we thought we were safe, but you have seen the attempt renewed at this session of the Legislature, by a certain member at the head of a clique (may I use that word) to take the control from the Board of Education and place it under the Medical Health Department.

I believe we should appoint a committee of local men and those easily reached to watch this movement in our behalf.

#### UNION WITH OTHER PROVINCES.

One more thought.

It has been in the minds of many for a long time that we should have some closer connection in some way with the teaching profession in other provinces. The four provinces to the west of us have made a good start towards attaining this by appointing representatives from each province to confer on various subjects. These representatives were apparently named by several bodies. The Education Department named one, the Provincial Association one, and a third in some other way.

At a conference of the representatives of the Provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia held in November last, the following resolutions were passed:—

- (a) That the principle of uniformity of texts and text-book contracts for these four provinces be approved and that experts representing the Education Departments be instructed to put the principle in operation as far as is practicable.
- (b) That an effort should be made through joint action by the *Departments* of Education to have a number of text-books prepared and authorized that will meet the needs of our schools to a greater extent than those now in use.
- (c) That an effort should be made to secure greater uniformity in school nomenclature, courses of study, teachers' courses, certificates and regulations generally.

A committee was appointed to represent the various provinces. The committee will meet at Victoria on Monday, March 29.

And finally, my brethren, be *loyal*.

1st, to yourselves and your ideals.

2nd, to your fellow teachers.

3rd, to your Boards of Trustees.

If you work for a man, work for him, not part of the time, but all the time, an undivided service. An ounce of loyalty is worth a pound of cleverness.

Look above the petty things and trivial annoyances, and try to see the great ideals and aims of your profession striving faithfully for their attainment; and you will grow worthier yourselves and assist in raising our profession to the high standard and place it deserves.

“He who does his best does well.”

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*A FORWARD LOOK.*

R. A. FALCONER, M.A., LL.D.

Dark though the present is we are hoping that the clouds will soon lift, and as we turn our look towards the horizon, if perchance we may get a glimpse of brightness, we cast about for indications as to what the future has in store for us and for those who will enter into the new world that will arise on the proclamation of peace. Most Canadians are, I should judge, optimistic as to this future. Perhaps the optimism may be based upon insufficient reasons, for one of the dangers of this continent is that in our buoyancy we overlook facts that will have serious consequences unless they are faced and resolutely dealt with. It is especially important that teachers should consider the possible eventualities and what preparation they as wise guides of youth should make.

In order to form some idea as to the kind of world into which we shall issue there are several matters that must be carefully weighed.

One outstanding fact that may have far-reaching effects is that serious damage has been done to the sense of reliability that hitherto had existed among the nations of the western world. There had been many treacheries of diplomacy in the nineteenth and earlier centuries, but the peoples had never been so universally alarmed as they became in August, 1914, by the discovery that two of the leading European powers practised a method in their foreign affairs which when discovered knocked the foundations from under international good faith. Appealing only to the self-interest of the moment they were found to be without moral character and they therefore possessed no ideal standard which gave any assurance as to the kind of action that might be expected of them. If the State is not subordinate to Moral Law, force must be the final argument between nations. During the ten years previous to this war the world had been living in a sense of insecurity because we did not know how soon the breaking-point would come when the burden of armament could be carried no longer. Now that insecurity has been exchanged for one that is even worse. We had expected that when the struggle

would come it would be an honest trial of strength, in itself horrible enough, and that we should simply have said that the age of warfare is not yet past; possibly at its conclusion the combatants might have shaken hands like gentlemen. But by this war the world has been profoundly shocked. It began with the violation of a treaty and has been conducted as though international agreements did not exist, and that of set purpose by one of the most thoroughly instructed people of the world.

Will the result be that the world will be convinced that so little reliance is to be placed upon the moral character of nations that we shall have to trust only in armaments? This seems to be the opinion of the President of the United States and many of his fellow-citizens who have been suddenly converted to the necessity of military preparedness. Their optimism has received a severe check.

A second momentous fact is the isolation of the Teutonic powers. Looking beyond the present struggle to the time when peace is restored, great though the change will be on the conclusion of peace, it may be assumed that these powers will find themselves alienated for a generation at least from most of the civilized world. It is true that a distinguished Berlin professor is quoted as having said recently, "All knowledge is sacred, and those who realize the sacredness of knowledge realize also that they have a possession in common, and this will keep or bring them together." But this hope will be very slowly realized, for sympathy is necessary if we are to understand the highest intellectual gifts that any people contribute to civilization, and for years to come sympathy will be a broken wire along the highways between the Allies and their former enemies. A great rift has been made in the growing unity of the human family. This rift is a moral disaster and must prove a certain barrier to progress, because civilization is made up of the gifts that are brought by many peoples. At its best the Teutonic mind has unique endowments, and if instead of becoming officialized it had in the exercise of freedom been thoroughly humanized it would have continued to hold the admiration of the world. Its recovery will be slow for the god Force brutalizes the spirit of his worshippers, and the generation that has been delivered over to a reprobate mind does not easily find place for repentance.

Further, it is altogether probable that as a result of this war an immense impetus will have been given to the promotion of technical efficiency. Under the pressure of vital necessity the workmen of Britain and the Dominions have become expert in new trades, they have learned to adjust themselves to new pursuits and conditions and have seen what can be accomplished by method and organization. Adaptability will hereafter be a sovereign virtue. Much will be heard of the application of science to industry. The immediate future will be devoted to replenishing diminished stocks, to the recovery of lost markets and to the capture of new ones, and to this end a trained world will devote the latent powers which it has discovered. It is therefore not beyond the bounds of probability that the modern man may once again come to measure Progress in terms of industrial success, that highly skilled nations may spend their main energies upon the organization and control of the forces of nature, and that a spirit of relentless efficiency may penetrate civilization. The world may be turned into a mere machine-shop.

There are considerations which, however, should in some measure redress the balance of the foregoing and justify an optimistic outlook for the future.

It has indeed always been regarded as a glorious act to die for one's country, and nations aroused in self-defence have exhibited a spirit of exalted sacrifice on the part of high and low alike. But into this war a new moral element seems to have entered which may be welcomed with hopefulness. No war has ever drawn into service such a high quality of soldier. It is the finest who have gone or who are going. They are entering upon a sacred cause. This moral element is further emphasized by the sensitiveness of the belligerents to the judgments of neutrals. The civilized world has come to regard war as so inhuman in itself that it can only be justified as a measure of self-defence or of righting the wrongs of the invaded and oppressed. Even the Germans acknowledge by their appeal to neutrals that their doctrine of force and state interests is insufficient for modern civilized society. In Germany's frantic if often immoral pleas of self-justification there is a glimmer of hope, for if even this militaristic people has been forced to admit that war shall be waged only when it can be justified on moral grounds, there

will in the future be fewer such immoral outbreaks as she was guilty of, and nations will not dare to incur the displeasure of the civilized world. Over against the injury done to international reliability by the attack of Germany may be placed the strengthening of the bonds of friendship between four of the leading European nations, Britain, France, Russia, Italy, and the powerful sympathy which has been awakened with them on the part of the great majority of the people of the United States. When Germany struck a blow at good faith and decency the four Allies came together with the consentient conviction that if the world is to be habitable, no nation however formidably armed can be allowed to run amuck. People must live and let live. We have therefore a problem in balancing—will the brutal blow that Germany dealt to the delicate and invisible tissues of the international body politic prove to be a more disastrous shock to its integrity than the beneficial reaction of the concert of the Allies and sympathetic neutrals, who have rallied to conserve the health of this international organism and reinforce its weakened powers? I believe that in the final issue the alliance of the friendly powers will result in permanent gains to civilization and international good-will.

Another new condition of great promise has been created by the spirit of generosity evoked by the war and by the simplicity of life that economy is enforcing. On this soil fine fruits of civilization will flourish—admiration for sacrifice, for the heroic, for public service. There may be radical changes in society but they will be brought to pass with less misunderstanding than would otherwise have arisen, because a common sacrifice will have provided a common sympathy. Officers and men, who formerly may have been employers and employed, are fraternizing together in the trenches and learning to know one another's good qualities. The old families have offered without stint both life and substance for the common country, and the men and women of the common folk have been no less generous of all that they had to give. Henceforth both will become as never before partners in their country's fortunes, and sacrifice will win what legislation might not have secured. Probably long-standing disputes which like icebergs endangered the commerce of life will disappear in the warmer currents that have been set in motion.



Dreadful though the experience of this war has been, certain advantages may accrue from its being lengthened out over many months. If it had been soon over we should have easily relapsed into our former state with old problems unchanged. The long drawn-out distress is producing profound and abiding effects. Nor is it far-fetched to believe that advantages will also come to the world through the bitter experience of Germany in this lengthened and disastrous conflict. She was the one great nation that gloried in war. The soldier received the chief homage in the State, and now their military caste is bringing them to ruin. They were taught by former experiences that war was economically profitable to them; now they find economic ruin staring them in the face. If this war continues much longer they will become embittered against their false gods.

In looking into the future after twenty-one months of war we have the assurance that victory will be ours, though the end is not yet. But for even more than victory we may hope for a permanent condition of affairs at its consummation that will make possible a finer race of men than ourselves. The process of balancing that I have just set forth is surely favourable in its results. The ground is being cleared for progress.

It is of special interest to you as teachers to consider what results you may expect from the struggle. I should say that it is quite reasonable for us to expect a finer discipline through all ranks of society and penetrating both the family and the school. If I have been correct in what I said a short time ago there will be a rehabilitation of the dignity of law. It is the Briton's respect for law and order that furnishes him with most of his moral weapons against his foe. Throughout the course of history reverence for law has become deeply rooted in the British mind, and has usually been associated with an innate idealism or profound religious belief. This regard for law is a distinctly British characteristic, and its value has been heightened by the enemy's challenge. In addition to this people have been compelled during the recent months to obey the orders of government to quite an unusual extent. Our safety depends upon obedience and self-discipline for the common weal. Millions of men throughout the Empire have been under arms and have learned to perform their daily duty under the regulations of

superiors to whom they must be submissive. If we revive this old British belief in the divineness of law and order we shall soon discover that self-control and obedience will result in greater human effectiveness. There had been many fears expressed that our young people were getting out of hand, were impatient of restraint, were devoting themselves to fantastic or capricious purposes. We may have been unduly fearful, but hereafter there is good reason for hoping that they will show an obedience that is not sullen, a self-control that is not self-repressive and a docility that is not nerveless.

Along with this new discipline will come, I believe, a more thorough and sincere mind. The life of your pupils is opening not in sunshine but in storm. They see the older boys going away to the war: father, older brothers, friends will have fallen or will return wounded. In these months the home is tense with anxiety and the resources have to be husbanded. There is talk of efficiency and of the elimination of waste. The virtue of thoroughness has been extolled; this is no time for dallying with things or for half learning the daily lesson.

These lines of law and thoroughness are being well laid. We can see them stretch out before us, but the youth must also have some propulsive energy to speed him along his straight course. Progress depends partly upon inspiration. There must be a noble faith. This too your pupils will have without stint. They have the inestimable privilege of being educated when noble traditions are being created; they will have the inspiration of the sacrifice and stirring examples of their older contemporaries. A great age will lie just at the threshold of their youth and its powers will linger on through their life. The days of criticism, of indifference, of mere curiosity will surely have departed and in the coming generation men will not fear to follow an ideal belief. These children will have been introduced into a new patriotism, a new love for their own people, a new reverence for their heroism, a new joy in noble deeds which their own fathers and brothers gloriously carried through. It will be their pride to tell their children in the distant future that they remember when the news came of what Canadians did at St. Julien, Festubert, Givenchy, St. Eloi and on many other fields of honour. They will tell of the long drawn out effort until a great cause was vindicated and

once again our people were born anew in upholding law and righteousness.

You are to be congratulated that it has fallen to your lot to teach at such a time as this and to have the privilege of leading the youth of this Province from the old world into the new, and of helping to mould them with a finer discipline, to instruct them in more thorough method and to establish them in a purer faith and patriotism.

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## THE SIGNIFICANCE OF PLAY.

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*Play a Dominant Interest.* Prior to entering school, play is the child's only occupation. Father, mother, sisters and brothers, uncles and aunts, play with him. They vie with each other in entertaining him. Other children are looked upon as "playmates." To him, all people and things are "play-things." The pet birds and animals are his living toys. Play is his only way of "growing up." The keenest punishment to the child is to be deprived of its period of play and association with its "playmates." To the normal child, play is its most serious business. Nothing in all its future career is entered into with more enthusiasm and abandon. In play the mind, body and soul are all engaged and given full expression. If the universality and grip of an instinct is the measure of its meaning, the play instinct is one of the fundamental instincts in both animals and men. It is to be found everywhere in the young of all species. For at least one-third of the entire lifetime, this interest in play continues and is one of the dominant characteristics. For a large part of this time, it is the *most* dominant. This is surely no accident. There must be a reason for it, and the reason must be a vital and important one.

*Four Theories of Play.* Four theories have been advanced to account for this wonderful interest in play, and as each of these has a special value from the viewpoint of the teacher, we shall consider them in detail.

1. *Play Affords an Outlet for Surplus Energy.* It gives the scholar who has been trying hard to keep quiet for a long time, the chance to "explode" his pent-up feelings. Although this theory does not explain everything, it nevertheless points out a lesson. Boys and girls are not constituted to sit still and there is no particular merit in compelling them to violate all the laws of health and pedagogy by insisting that they keep quiet, and physically inactive, for more than one period at a time. Simple calisthenics, breathing exercises, games, songs, marching, etc.,



should be used between periods in which pupils have been sitting still. Frequent opportunities must be given to frolic and shout and indulge in all legitimate forms of expression without restraint. Better class work will both precede and follow a brief intermission for playful activities in which every scholar is given a chance to vigorously exercise the muscles, expand the lungs, and send the blood pulsating through the whole body.

2. *Play as a Means of Recuperation.* Every teacher has experienced the exhilaration which comes from some form of congenial vigorous physical activity after having been completely "down and out" as a result of a hard day in school, or over study and confining work. Through the brisk walk, the game of tennis, or the horse-back ride, Nature has refreshed and vigorated the body and the "tired feeling" is gone. Children have a similar experience when compelled to apply themselves to severe mental work in which there is little opportunity for bodily movement.

3. *Play is a Preparation for Life.* This theory advanced by Carl Gross, accounts for play as a means of preparation for life, because of the personal development which comes through playful practice in those activities which later become our serious pursuit. The little girl playing with her doll is fitting herself for motherhood; the boy as captain of his team, is training for leadership among men in the game of life. Through play properly directed, every child is developed in all four phases of life—physical, mental, social and moral. It will be worth while to consider just how this preparation is accomplished in play.

*Play is Healthful.* Organic vigour can be most readily secured during childhood and adolescence, through the natural forms of exercise enjoyed in play. Growth and development depend upon the use of the big muscles. When the muscles are brought into vigorous action, as in play, they are not only strengthened themselves, thereby increasing ability and the power of endurance, but through them the other vital organs are developed. The heart, lungs, intestines and other organs are stimulated. The processes of circulation, respiration, assimilation and elimination are improved. Strength, endurance, beauty and grace are acquired. These are assets which no money can buy, and without which life can be neither happy nor efficient.

Because play affords the best means of developing strong rugged bodies, special attention should be given to types of games and play which will encourage boys and girls who are physically weak to take part.

It is exceedingly fortunate that the period in which organic vigour can be more readily increased, is also the period in which children are fond of play and all forms of physical activity.

When a teacher gets the idea that she can affect, for life, the health and physical well-being of those scholars who come under her care, she will begin to appreciate her responsibility in looking upon the supervision of play as a great opportunity, rather than a burden.

*Play is Excellent Mental Training.* In play there is always present the most important essentials in all processes of mind development—interest, attention and expression. As soon as play becomes uninteresting, it ceases to be play. It is then work or drudgery.

*Attention in Play is not an Effort.* That is why the interest can be sustained longer in playful activities than in work. Because of the increased opportunities for self-expression in play, there is a deep and therefore permanent reflex influence upon the mind and character of the child. The senses are quickened, the judgment is developed, neuro-muscular co-ordination is improved, the relation between thinking and acting is direct. Thought, imitation, initiative and precision are stimulated.

There is scarcely a subject that cannot be adapted to appeal to the play spirit when occasion warrants it. The present distinction between work and play in most of our schools should be minimized; not that the work should be less serious and fruitful, but that it should have more of the elements which make it interesting and appealing. The same thought and personal supervision should be given to the play as is now given to other subjects on the curriculum. Too soon, the school work becomes a matter of class room, books, subjects, teacher, examinations, reading and writing and behaviour. The model child is often wrongly considered the one who is "good" because she has been robbed of her exuberance of spirit by confining studies, lack of exercise, and concentration on being a "bright" scholar and "head of her class." Our present school system is so thoroughly rooted

in our thought, that it is hard for us to think that it has not always been so, and should not thus continue indefinitely. But with our increased knowledge of the child and its development, there must come a modification of our school methods. It is unnatural that the child should spend so much of the school hours indoors and do so much of its study in silence and without the chance to handle objects and move around.

The preventive and corrective value of play can readily be demonstrated under such circumstances. When the children are engaged in interesting games, there is no inducement to wrongdoing. The "bully" is often transformed into the "leader."

*Play Develops Social Qualities.* Because of the close relations of children in play, it affords unusual opportunities for fostering characteristics which make for the highest type of manhood and womanhood. The individualism and suspicious conservatism which so often prevents the launching of many good co-operation community enterprises, can in a large measure be overcome in succeeding generations through the development of the "team spirit" on the school grounds.

The moral value of play cannot be overestimated. No better opportunity is presented for acquiring those inestimable qualities of obedience, unselfishness, sacrifice, courage, perseverance, honesty, self-control, courtesy, loyalty and democracy. The discipline in "playing the game" according to the "rules of the game" carries its effect into later life and produces "law abiding citizens." Learning to take defeat and win a victory in play, prepares one to accept these experiences graciously in more important matters. The idea of overcoming difficulties by not "giving up" becomes imbedded in the character. Many a boy and girl learns to control his or her temper, as well as tongue and hands, by wisely directed play. The incorrigible boy is more often rebelling at the system which represses and inhibits his initiative and expression, than at the teacher and studies as such.

From a moral standpoint, one of the most important advantages of play is the wholesome relations which it fosters between the boys and girls and young people generally. In the great majority of schools and communities, which the writer has visited, where the moral standards are low, there is a lack of play and whole-

some amusements. On the other hand where there is a good interest in games and athletics on the part of the young of both sexes, the moral standards as a rule are much higher.

Whether or not play is helpful rather than harmful depends upon the supervision and leadership. The play in many schools at the present time is positively harmful. In one school which I recently visited, the teacher told me that much of the recess period, the older boys spent their time "picking on the little ones." Such "bullying" is bad both for the "bully" and those who are "bullied." The moral standards are related very definitely to the forms of amusement and play during intermission and play periods.

4. *The Recapitulation Theory of Play.* The recapitulation theory proposed by Dr. G. Stanley Hall, is the latest and most generally accepted as an explanation of the reason why children are all so very much interested in play and why it is a characteristic of human experience the world over. In play, the child rehearses or lives over again the history of his forefathers in all past ages. This view accounts for many things which otherwise are difficult to understand. It explains the universal natural interest on the part of all children in climbing, running, dodging, tag, and chasing games, hide-and-seek, throwing at objects, fishing, hunting, wrestling, boxing, and all sorts of Indian, cow-boy, and snow-ball fighting games. It also explains the great delight which boys have in making rafts, caves, bonfires, tents, and thus mimicking in their playful activity the serious vocations of their forefathers.

The normal child manifests an interest in playful activities corresponding to the methods of life and the vocations of his ancestors through past generations, in regular order. These forms of play which have a compelling and universal interest for the boy now, had at one time a life and death interest for mankind. Even in this twentieth century, boys in Canadian schools are endowed with muscular and nervous systems indelibly stamped with all these stages of development through which the human race has come. The time was when his forefathers lived in caves and fought with the elements, and with man and beast. Only those who are strong of body, fleet of foot, and who could handle offensive and defensive weapons survived. These in turn



handed down to their offspring the same characteristics so essential to life itself in primitive days. And so the process continued generation after generation until the qualities became imbedded in the very fibre of every human individual. So in play, the boy lives over these earlier periods in the development of his ancestors.

Take for example, the simple game of tag which is so common among young children. Without even knowing it, they are mimicking their forefathers. The one who is "it" is pursuing its enemy, while those who are being chased are fleeing from the enemy who wished to overtake them. All the emotions of the "chase" are brought into play. To their forefathers the chase was a serious life and death matter, but it is fun to them. What happens when one is caught? Both the one who is chasing and the one who is caught shriek with joy. They do not plan deliberately to do so, but without thinking anything about it, there is an explosion of emotion.

In the same way we might analyze the games from the simplest forms of hide-and-seek, to the more complex team games of baseball and Rugby football; and in all of them we should see that their interest to childhood and adolescence lies in the fact that in these games expression is given to various traits handed down through the serious daily pursuits of our ancestors.

The great popularity of baseball is due to the fact that it includes so many elements which had their origin far back in the history of man. The fast running required in going round the bases and stopping and catching the ball, the tagging and dodging, the throwing, the hitting, the strategy and cunning of the pitcher all give expression to activity for which there is a deep rooted desire.

Rugby football appeals to older school boys and college men for the very same reason. Here we have the two opposing hostile tribes, with opportunity for personal and united onslaught, tackling, charging, wrestling which only too vividly reminds one of the accounts of early tribal feuds and conquests.

"It is all a play picture of far away realities and the psychology of our whole play tendency is comprehended in the fact that the instinctive pursuits of mind and body unfailingly choose to discharge along the channels of the least psychic resistance

and therefore our instinctive play efforts are productive of little or no real fatigue because they operate along and over established and well initiated nerve paths in the brain, calling into play only those nerve actions and emotions to which our race has long been accustomed."

"The reason why children play and why their play takes these forms is now evident. The higher brain centres, those making work possible, are not developed. If a child does anything, he must play. Namely, his activity must take the form prescribed by the brain centres already developed, and these are the old racial traits. He is equipped with a nervous mechanism adequate for old racial activities, and for the most part, with these only."

In other words, the child plays because it has both the desire and the ability to play. Later it will acquire a similar interest and capacity for work, but only as it is given opportunity for normal development of body, mind and soul, through self-expression in playful activities.

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*PLAY IN THE SCHOOL.*

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After a careful study of, and personal visitation to, hundreds of schools in all parts of the United States and Canada, I am thoroughly convinced that the vast majority of teachers fail to appreciate what a real play spirit means in a school, or what a help it can be to the teacher, in bringing her into more infinite and sympathetic relations with her scholars.

The basis for this conviction is in the marked contrast presented by the schools in which the teacher has entered in a whole-souled fashion into the play and amusement life of her scholars, and the community, and on the other hand, those unfortunately much larger number of schools in which the teacher is indifferent or even opposed to all such activities.

The real teacher realizes that she is teaching not subjects but human beings. She is training and preparing for life, men and women while they are yet in their childhood. With this great responsibility resting upon her, she is anxious to perform her duties so that she may be justly proud of her product. To accomplish this purpose, she must have a well-planned programme, which includes careful consideration of the health and play life of her scholars. This programme should include *a curriculum of activity*, as well as a curriculum of study.

*THE VALUE OF A REAL PLAY SPIRIT IN THE SCHOOL.*

In spite of the fact that the exuberance of spirits so often manifested in ways that are harmful both to the discipline of the class, the disposition of the teacher, and the effect upon the scholars themselves, the wise teacher will not seek to suppress the play spirit which after all is at the root of most mischievousness. She will endeavour to direct it and control it. For after all this play spirit will in later life prove a valuable element in counteracting the strenuous and serious existence which both men

and women have to live in this busy and hurrying "Twentieth Century." For this reason, more, rather than less, play is needed. The play element should exist in the teacher's curriculum and work. The play spirit should pervade the class-room. The teacher should be the play leader. The idea of "playing the game" and "working together" as team-mates should be magnified. Will not this thought alone transform the trying days of many a teacher?

It is for this very reason that many school boards and county superintendents are giving preference to teachers who, along with their other qualifications, have the ability to arouse and develop this sort of a play spirit. They want it in the class-room, on the school grounds, and in the community. They are beginning to realize what it means to the school, to the community now, and what it will mean in the years to come.

#### THE TEACHER AS A LEADER IN PLAY AND RECREATION.

*The Teacher's Responsibility.* Assuming that the highest conception of the teacher regarding the school is that it is not an end in itself, but simply the channel through which she makes her contribution to the community and that the greatest task is not the teaching of subjects but the development of character, we are forced to the conclusion that every teacher must definitely assume a leadership in play and recreation.

*Relation of Games to School Life.* The following is a quotation in full from Miss Jessie H. Bancroft's book on Games:—

"The relation of games to a school programme is many-sided. To sit for a day in a class-room observing indications of physical and mental strain and fatigue is to be convinced beyond question that the school-room work and conditions induce a tremendous nervous strain, not only through prolonged concentration on academic subjects, but through the abnormal repression of movement and social intercourse that becomes necessary for the maintenance of discipline and proper conditions of study. As a session advances, there is needed a steady increase in the admonitions that restrain neuro-muscular activity as shown in the unnecessary handling of books and pencils and general restlessness; also restraint of a desire to use the voice and communicate in a



natural outlet of the social instinct. One is equally impressed with the prolonged continuance of bad postures, in which the chest is narrowed and depressed, the back and shoulders rounded forward, and the lungs, heart and digestive organs crowded upon one another in a way that impedes their proper functioning and induces passive congestion. . In short the nervous strain for both pupil and teacher, the need for vigorous stimulation of respiration and circulation, for an outlet for the repressed social and emotional nature, for the correction of posture, and for a change from abstract academic interests, are all largely indicated. Nothing can correct the posture but formal gymnastic work selected and taught for that purpose; but the other conditions may be largely and quickly relieved through the use of games. Even five minutes in the class-room will do this—five minutes of lively competition of laughter, and of absorbing involuntary interest. The more physical activity there is in this, the better; and fifteen minutes of even freer activity in the fresh air of the playground is more than fifteen times better.

The typical school recess is a sad apology for such complete refreshment of body and mind. A few pupils take the centre of the field of play, while the large majority, most of whom are in greater need of the exercise, stand or walk slowly around the edges, talking over the teacher and the lesson. An organized recess, by which is meant a programme whereby only enough classes go to the playground at one time to give opportunity for all of the pupils to run and play at once, does away with these objections, if some little guidance or leadership be given the children for lively games. The best discipline the writer has ever seen, in either class room or playground, has been where games are used, the privilege of play being the strongest possible incentive to instant obedience before and after. Besides, with such a natural outlet for repressed instincts, their ebullition at the wrong time is not so apt to occur. Many principals object to recesses because of the moral contamination for which those periods are often responsible. The author has had repeated and convincing testimony of the efficacy of games to do away with this objection."

## SPIRIT AND ATTITUDE TOWARD PLAY.

Much depends upon the spirit and attitude toward play. A sour disposition and a cranky nature will not even enjoy being a play leader. The spirit of buoyancy and cheerfulness must always be uppermost, and the teacher must find a real delight in actually participating in the games.

The intimate relations experienced in play are invaluable in revealing to the teacher traits of character and capacity which she may not have had opportunity to discover in the regular class work. At the same time the children see and understand their teacher in a new and fascinating way. They may respect and even admire her as their teacher but they *like* her as their play leader. The sympathy and loyalty of scholars can often be won through play when efforts by all other means fail.

The difference between schools is the difference in "school spirit." This thing which is so difficult to define can either make or mar the success of a teacher and a school. Proper interest in, and supervision of play, athletics, and all forms of recreation will do more to make real school spirit than any other one thing. It has a wonderful influence upon attendance, discipline and scholarship. It transforms the recess from being a source of anxiety to a period of relaxation and refreshment for both teachers and scholars. For these reasons many teachers who at first are opposed to the use of games, become enthusiastic advocates of their use, both in the classroom and the playground.

*Influence on Community.* The limits of the school yard can no more confine the direct and indirect influence of this wholesome play spirit than the four walls of the school building. During these impressionable years, the scholars are consciously, or unconsciously, being moulded into play leaders themselves. They are being taught games which in later years they will reproduce wherever they go and whenever occasion demands.

After school hours and during the summer months, life will be made happier and the days brighter for the children and also for those at home. In all sorts of carefully planned and unexpected ways the "play spirit" and the "play programme" will be sent broadcast.

*THE BEST USE OF THE SCHOOL PLAYGROUND.*

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CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

*The Recess*, the rightful delight and boon of all school children in every age and land, is a needless burden and trial to many teachers. For this reason it has been shortened in some schools and in others it has been discontinued in the afternoon or both morning and afternoon. Sad indeed is this commentary on our lack of understanding of child life and the true elements of education, sacrificing the health and real development of our children—the greatest asset of the nation—for the sake of cramming through the increasingly difficult prescribed course of studies, or supposedly making the day's work easier for the teacher and discipline and order less difficult to the scholars. For the sake of the children, and the future welfare of the nation, let us hope and work for the lengthening, rather than the shortening, of the recess both morning and afternoon, and plan wisely for its larger and better use.

*The solution of the recess problem* lies in the same direction as the solution of every other school problem. More thought, more careful planning and equipment, more sympathetic supervision, and efficient leadership. If any other phase of school life received as little attention as the average recess, it would be as a great source of worry and as unsatisfactory in the results.

Time, money, effort, and personality must be put into the recess period, and when this is done, we shall be amazed at the result not only in the recess itself, but in the direct and indirect results upon all phases of school work.

School Boards are even more lax in this regard than teachers. They do not expect much *less* require the same type of instruction and supervision in the recess, that they demand in other periods. Nor do they furnish proper playgrounds or equipment with which to accomplish satisfactory results. In this as in other matters, that we are endeavouring to improve, a beginning must be made and the best thing for a teacher to do is to make

a start right away by gradually organizing and supervising the play at recess.

Fill all of the fifteen minutes, both morning and afternoon, with lively and interesting games. In the small one-room and one-teacher schools, there is less need for outlining any detailed method. The teacher will familiarize herself with the rules of all sorts of games and adapt them to the needs and wishes of her scholars.

In the larger school, more organization is necessary, but the same principles apply in larger schools. It may be necessary to have a relay recess in which the scholars are allowed out in successive groups so as to give every scholar an opportunity to participate actively in organized and supervised play.

*How to Teach a New Game.* Master the rules thoroughly so that you do not have to refer to the book while teaching them, and make a beginning by teaching one game, spending sufficient time to have it thoroughly understood and fairly well played and enjoyed. Cat and Rat, Rabbit's Nest, Three-deep, Snatch the Stick, Circle Ball Tag, Dodge Ball, Head and Tail Tag, and Right Fall are among the best games to introduce first. Before the children leave the class-room explain, fully, the new games to be played, giving the name, the purpose and the method. Illustrate the positions and fine points of the game by the use of diagrams on the blackboard. It is often desirable to teach a difficult game by having a few of the most apt children go slowly through the different parts, explaining them as the children proceed. Those who are being taught, but not participating, should be arranged in a hollow square or form a circle around those who are demonstrating. When the first group has mastered the details others may be substituted or added to the group or a number of different groups may try the new game simultaneously.

Following the first demonstration of a new game, opportunity may be given for the asking of questions.

Short essays may be written on the rules and benefit of games, to fasten the main points of a game in the minds of the scholars.

*Games.* Select games which can be played on the school grounds, and with whatever equipment is available. The games, or events, should be selected in advance, for the entire week. By simply rotating the games from one group to another, no



boy or girl plays the same game twice during the week. When games or events are unusually interesting to certain groups, they may be repeated on successive or alternate days. The games need not be played by all groups in turn, but may be suited to the ability and interest of the various groups.

*Groups.* The groups should be arranged, primarily, according to playing ability, just as scholars are graded in other subjects according to their ability in those subjects. At the same time the sex, size, age and grade will have to be considered. For these simple games the primary boys and girls may be grouped together, while the boys in the upper grades will be in a group by themselves, and the older girls in another group by themselves.

The groups should be about equal in numbers and when convenient they should have an even number so that they may be further subdivided into two teams, or groups, having an equal number of players. Scholars may be changed from one group to another at the teacher's discretion or examinations may be held at regular intervals—perhaps monthly.

*Places.* Each group may be assigned to a definite place on the grounds for the entire week or the groups may rotate each day so that the same games are played in the same places all week. The character of the games, the size and shape of the grounds and the equipment to be used will determine whether the groups or the games rotate. Care must be exercised in assigning the playing spaces so as to accommodate the different groups and games to the best advantage.

*Equipment.* The grounds should be marked and all necessary apparatus secured and arranged for in advance. The importance of having the grounds carefully marked and in good condition cannot be over emphasized; thus the scholars are "positively tempted" to play. Responsibility for this may be assigned to groups, committees, or officers.

*Organization.* "A Recess Games Committee" may be appointed by the teacher, or elected by the scholars. This committee may act with the teacher in the selection of games, grouping of scholars, securing and caring for equipment, appointing leaders, captains and officials for games, teaching and conducting of games and events, scoring, reporting and recording results.

*Teaching.* Advance instruction may be given the Games Committee, or the leaders and captains, so that each Monday they will be able to introduce the new games to their respective groups. On succeeding days the groups profit by the observation of other games even while they are playing their own game.

When a particularly difficult game is to be introduced, one of the groups may demonstrate it while all the other groups observe it.

*Supervision.* The principal and teachers should not only supervise the whole recess period, but actually enter into the games, shifting from one group to another, to get better acquainted, and to promote uniformity in rules and methods of playing. Players should be confined to groups to which they belong and groups should not interfere with each other.

#### SELECTION OF GAMES.

Every play leader must diagnose the situation and adapt the following suggestions to the conditions:—

*Space.* Play outdoors, whenever possible. Keep in mind the area, shape, surface, lighting, obstructions and equipment.

*Group.* Study the character of those to participate, as to number, sex, age and ability. Many games may be played with equal interest by groups differing in all of these characteristics. Experience alone will guide in selection of games for different groups.

*Principle.* Choose games which involve the largest number, create the most interest, cause the least risk, and give the greatest benefit.

*Vary.* Use quiet, singing, active, vigorous and hard games, according to conditions and needs of participants.

*Start.* Use simple games first, such as are readily understood, easily played and with little or no equipment.

*Continue.* Introduce new games only as others are thoroughly understood, and have served their purpose.

*Intersperse.* Less popular games should be alternated with more popular ones. Many games which at first do not appeal, later become great favourites, e.g., volley-ball.

*Emphasize.* Group and informal competitive games maintain most constant interest of the majority.

*Hold.* Most popular games should always be kept till the last. Do not overlook group athletics in planning the play programme.

### GAMES SUGGESTED FOR A SAMPLE PROGRAMME OF AN ORGANIZED RECESS.

#### *Monday Morning.*

Equipment.

Group A.—Head and Tail Tag .....	Coin.
“ B.—Circle Ball Tag .....	Ball.
“ C.—Right Face (Line or Maze Tag) .	Whistle.
“ D.—Target Throw .....	Target and 3 balls.
“ E.—Relay Standing Broad Jump ..	Measuring-tape.

#### *Monday Afternoon.*

Group A.—Circle Dodge Ball .....	Ball.
“ B.—Snatch the Stick .....	Stick.
“ C.—Rabbit's Nest .....	None.
“ D.—Good Day .....	None.
“ Relay Race .....	None.

On succeeding days games will be advanced to the next group in regular order.

### SUGGESTIONS ON TEACHING GAMES.

Be a real leader, not a supervisor only. Do not be afraid of losing your dignity or prestige. Active participation will quickly gain not only the respect, but also the affection of all. Be natural. Size up the situation and adapt yourself to it. Keep the “play spirit” uppermost. Do not allow the play to become too serious. Get laughter and fun for all out of it.

Maintain discipline. Children quickly learn that they can have more fun in a given amount of time with proper order and supervision than they can get in the same time without it.

Watch for waning interest and anticipate desire for change. Do not allow children to get tired of a good game by playing it too much.

Make all play yield character values by insisting upon cleanliness, politeness, obedience, loyalty, justice, truthfulness, consideration, perseverance, and chivalry. Adhere strictly to the same rules for each game except when proper variations are being used.

Insist on the spirit as well as the letter of the rules being strictly observed, even at other than school hours, and give reasons for so doing.

Minimize the idea of winning at any cost. Honourable defeat is more glorious than dishonest victory.

Insist on accuracy in counting and scoring points.

Discourage unnecessary disorder, boisterousness and roughness.

Give everyone a fair chance to play in the different positions.

Remember "practice makes perfect" in teaching as well as in playing games.

Use the opportunity for training, by placing children in charge as leaders or officials.

Assign scholars to look up and introduce new games.

Create and maintain interest by occasional demonstrations, exhibitions and festivals.

Use games as part of school programme on all sorts of special occasions.

#### HEALTH HINTS ON TEACHING GAMES.

All play should be compulsory for all scholars who are physically fit.

Careful physical examinations should be given by competent physicians at least once a year and oftener when the conditions of any scholar suggests need for it.

Play should be conducted as a part of school work for which credit is given the same as in regular subjects.

Exercise patience and care in interesting the indifferent, weak, and awkward to participate, because of their greater need and benefit.

Safeguard the overdoing of those who are enthusiastic and tempted to play too hard and too long.



Study causes of inability of those who do not play well. Defects of eyes, ears, breathing, circulation, or feet may require treatment.

Recess should be held and games played out of doors, except in the most severe weather.

- Games should be frequently used in the class-room between, or even in the midst of periods, with windows and doors open.

Select games and exercises which will counteract improper postural defects due to inactivity and cramped positions assumed in sitting.



*THE UNUSUAL CHILD.*

MRS. MARGARET H. KERR, QUEEN VICTORIA SCHOOL, TORONTO.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—It is very kind of you to give a place on your programme to this subject of "The Unusual Child." It certainly shows that the awakening to the menace of our educational efforts is province-wide. This fact makes for help and progress in the work that lies before us, to make the unusual child more unusual. This question, like prohibition, has recently become a burning one, and we hope a speedy solution of our difficulties may be found in this case as in the other. Many are asking for knowledge and then begging to be allowed to help to forward the cause in some way.

This work, the care and training of feeble-minded children, is pre-eminently an educational problem. We of the primary grade are sometimes faced with the questions: Why has such a child been in your class so long? Can he not be promoted? Why does he not make better progress? Our answer is we have tried our best methods, have spent more time on him individually than on any one else in the class, have done everything we know how to do to encourage and help him, with no results. Time goes on, and, having grown too large for our seats, he is sent to the next grade to harass the soul and exhaust the patience of the next teacher and waste her valuable time.

If we have only one of this kind at a time, it is not so bad; but sometimes two or three drift in and complicate the situation causing more loss to the rest of the class than we, at the time, realize.

Recent investigation has shown that between one and two per cent. of all children in elementary schools are mentally defective, and many are never reckoned with at all, for they never reach school. Of these last there are 7,000 of all ages in the Province. What is the matter with a child of this type? Is our programme of study, our time, or our system adequate to deal with this too frequent condition?

A question was asked yesterday at one of the meetings where this subject was being discussed: Why are there so many of these

children now, when, in the questioner's youth, they were never heard of? He asked if our modern educational methods were to blame for the increase? I say yes, because of the increase in our knowledge and power to diagnose children's conduct we are able to recognize the mental defectives in the bad, unmanageable boy of the past. It was the failure to understand this problem, and to deal with it, that is to blame for the increase. Mental defectives are born—of mentally-defective stock—not made by errors in educational methods. We realize, now, that we *have* children of this kind to deal with. What are we to do with them? The law says every child of school age must be given an opportunity to acquire an education but it has not provided the special equipment required for the needs of this type of child. We have had them in our care, have given them precious time that should have been given to others who were able to profit by it. This we have done with a strong sense of duty, hoping that in some miraculous way we might be able to compensate for what nature had denied.

There is a class of children that must not be confounded with this type. I refer to the backward child who, from various causes, may not be able to keep up with the work of his grade. This is a large class and should be provided for in a promotion class, where, with extra help and attention, he may make up for lost time.

In 1914, by the Ontario Auxiliary Classes Act, the Government recognized the existence of a large number of children whose needs could be met only by the organization of auxiliary classes. This Act included the chief provisions of the Special Classes Act (which was repealed by Section 14 of the present Act) and came into force at once. It gave power to School Boards, or Boards of Education, to establish classes for those who, from any physical or mental cause, were unable to take proper advantage of the ordinary Public or Separate School courses. These include a list of about fourteen different groups, some of which are cripple-children, epileptics, anæmic, or tubercular children, those weak from long or recurring illnesses, the blind or semi-blind, the deaf or semi-deaf, and many other physically-defective children. These are provided for under the Act, and school boards may establish classes in the best way possible

and some have been established; but there is still another class, the most important class of all—important, I say, not from the standpoint of the individual child concerned, but from that of society at large and the school in particular. These are individuals who, no matter how long they may live, will never attain a mental age or capacity greater than that of a child of three or four, or at best eleven or twelve years of age and who cannot be made into normal useful citizens.

Mental defectives are of three classes:—

1. Idiots—not a great menace as they have no posterity. They never attain a mental age of more than three years.

2. Imbeciles—attaining a mental age of seven or eight, and not hard to recognize.

3. High Grade Imbeciles—sometimes called morons attaining a mental age of eleven or twelve.

The first two classes can be guarded against, as they are easily recognizable. But class three, the real menace, are not so easy to recognize. These constitute the most serious handicap on education and on the moral welfare of our schools, and are the greatest problem for us to consider. The development and care of this kind of child is not the greatest work for a teacher; but in order that she may be able to do her best work for the larger and more important class—the normal children—these “feeble-minded” or “mental defectives” should be removed from the ordinary class room, and supplied with activities suited to their circumscribed abilities, giving them opportunities, so far as lies in our power, to be helpful members of their necessarily limited community.

Nature has put the feeble-minded in a class by himself—let us take the hint. They attain a much greater measure of happiness in being associated with their own kind where competition is limited to their ability, where they can feel themselves equal to their fellows. Under wise supervision they may be made nearly self-supporting, instead of wholly dependent, and may enjoy a happy and useful life at a much smaller expense to the State than now.

They cost much more to try to educate them in our schools than normal children, and with worse than no results. They “stay” in school as long as it is possible to keep them. Their



parents do not know what to do with them and hope against hope that maybe time, if nothing else, will be kind to them and do something for them. The amount involved in money in our efforts to educate them is only a fraction of the real cost to teachers and fellow-pupils in their sojourn in the various grades. They never reach the higher grades but continue from year to year to handicap the efforts of teacher and pupils in the lower grades, thus causing a measure of retardation in the normal children.

Think over your past experiences of this kind. At first you may not remember any one of this kind ever having been under your care. Many of the teachers in the Summer School, last year, at first thought could not remember a single one, but when asked to take a little time to run over the list of their troublesome pupils, each and every one, when asked to write an account of any individual cases they could remember, were able, with the new light they had received from their work in the class, to give accounts of many cases. Where are those children now, and what has been their fate? What has been the result of all your patient efforts in their behalf? The records in our Orphans' Homes, Industrial Schools, Reformatories, Jails and Prisons will answer those questions for you. They all, or nearly all, eventually reach one or more of these places. What they ever acquired at school failed to make them useful, or even happy, or to give them a place in "the sun." As workers in their weak and limited way, they are subject to the craft or dishonesty of unprincipled employers and associates, and in their weakness readily succumb to temptation and bad example.

Thus, you see, there is no real or permanent place for these poor, unfinished creatures in the industrial world or the great world of labour. They cannot keep up with the procession, and fall by the wayside, in time becoming a charge on the community.

Now we should realize how futile have been all our efforts to educate this class, and resolve, here and now, to give up wasting our time and that of our normal pupils in any further attempts along these lines. Failure has followed us in the past, and will continue to do so in the future. They cannot be educated but they can be trained, by repetition, and by habit formation; and this to the best advantage when they are started young

—the younger the better. When we realize how poor is their motor control, we will give them all the help that useful activities can supply. They can imitate but cannot initiate; we should see that they get proper things to imitate. They have little or no sense of reasoning, relationship or judgment. They cannot readily connect up ideas—that is, to put this and that together. Let us not expect too much of them. These are all serious handicaps. They can develop only a measure of self respect by learning to do something well with their hands.

Research has proved, and there is ample evidence of the fact, that no matter what educational advantages have been offered them, these have never been able to bring even *one* to a normal standard, or make him into a self-respecting, self-supporting, home-making citizen. A mind cannot be developed where the brain is deficient. You might as well try to grow a hand or a foot on a child born without one. You thus see how impossible it is to make these children happy members of a class where everyone else can do the work joyously and go forward, while they are a drag and a hindrance, and are left hopelessly behind.

Heretofore, we have given them an assumed place, keeping them up with our sympathy and extra care. We wanted to do the best we could for them and O! the valuable time we have wasted, not realizing the hopelessness of our task and not being willing to acknowledge that we could not make an impression on them or teach them something. Our schools, as now constituted, are unable to care for these children.

The logical preparation for their welfare should include:—

1st. A teacher of their own, equipped sympathetically, scientifically, and executively to meet their need.

2nd. A room of their own, fitted and furnished so efficiently that there would be no question regarding the standing of the pupils in it, either in the minds of the general teaching staff or of the rest of the children in the school. Admission to this class should be deemed a privilege and treated as such so that there would be no stigma attached to the pupil or his family. This should be the trying out, or testing place, where a proper classification of the individual and his capabilities could be made, after a careful study, and preparatory to his entrance to a permanent home and school prepared for his future. We all must

realize the seriousness of the problem confronting the people of Ontario to-day, and as teachers who have much to do with moulding public opinion, we should be prepared to do our part in the solution of it.

About five in every thousand of the general community are mentally defective. This is a greater proportion than in the last generation as in this humane age we are more careful of the unfortunate. This is rightly so, but these unfortunates grow to maturity, thus making the danger the greater. It was formerly the custom to turn these poor creatures out to shift for themselves at an early age, without any provision for their well-being and many of them died. There is every probability that with the best of our manhood giving up their lives so freely in this awful war, and this ineligible class being left to reproduce its own kind, we shall hereafter have a much larger percentage of feeble-mindedness if we who know and understand the situation instead of saying: "Why doesn't somebody do something," do something ourselves, for mental defectiveness is about 80 per cent. heredity. But what should be done? and how can we do it?

We should study our children closely and report to the authorities those whom we feel are not up to the mental age for our work. This mental age in our city can be definitely defined, as we are fortunate in having a clinic at the General Hospital for that purpose, held once a week. The school nurses take the children there and they are examined by trained physicians and psychologists. This is done in private and no one's feelings are hurt. In places where this cannot be done let us get the best advice we can, and when we decide that a child is lacking, even in a one-roomed rural school, let us provide him with some occupation, in the school room or the yard, that will train his hand to do something useful. Each individual case will have its individual needs which must be met in the best way possible, until proper provision is made for him. Let us not forget the educational value of play to all children and especially to those we are considering. Frequent change in occupation is also necessary.

Last year, during July and part of August, it was my privilege to attend the summer school for Auxiliary Class work under the

leadership of that great authority on the subject in hand, Dr. Helen MacMurchy, with whom Prof. Sandiford was associated. I say it was my privilege and I think all the members of the class deemed it such, for it was made one of the most interesting study periods of our lives. The practical training was given with a class of boys from one of our institutions, and a class of girls from another. The boys, whose biographies were furnished by the head of the institution, had been examined at the clinic and were all mentally defective, some of them lower grade than others but all of them a serious detriment to the well-being and comfort of the other members of the institution.

A Canadian teacher of wide experience in this work, but now residing in New York City, took charge of the practical part of the work, and with proper material and equipment, and with the help of the students who were all experienced teachers, gave them manual work. They made backs for brushes at the benches and then made the brushes—coarse and crude at first, but some afterwards made brushes of hair, the wide ones used by school janitors, and they were very creditable. They learned to lace their boots—a great undertaking for many of them. They prepared a large box, put in partitions, roofed it, and made it into a fine doll's house. They learned to weave, in frames, with raffia. The frames were made by the teacher out of bits of wood, and were studded with nails to hold the warp. They made baskets of various shapes and sizes. They modelled in plasticine and did it well too. Many other occupations of this kind were used.

These boys had been the problem in any class or school in which they had ever been. They were what we might call terrors, and had been persistent truants; they were destructive, unruly and unmanageable; and who could blame them, knowing their mentality and the work offered them. They had nothing in school they could do, so they did what they knew how to do.

The training class was supposed to be in session from 10.00 to 12.30 each school day, with the afternoons for play; but when the teacher returned after lunch, to prepare work for the following day, these boys were always at the gate begging to be taken in to continue their work, and had to be *compelled* to leave at 4 o'clock. For the first time in their lives, they had found some-



thing they could bring to a successful finish, and see the work of their hands in some useful article they had made. They were happy in their work, and the last report I had of them was that they had been better boys ever since; and the work was being carried on as well as possible by the general teaching staff.

The school closed with a birthday party for one of the boys. They behaved well, and we had an exhibition of their work which was attended by quite a number of interested people. When at the end of the term we looked over the biographies of these boys, we could hardly believe, from their conduct and work while with us, that they were the same boys. They were interested and busy, and therefore happy.

Let me close with the hope that the State will soon undertake the care of these poor unfortunates as a duty, and place them in farm colonies, on the cottage plan. These could be made homes in deed as well as in name, thus protecting society from them, and protecting them from the world.

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*BUSY WORK FOR JUNIOR PUPILS.*

MISS ISABELLE RICHARDSON, NORMAL MODEL SCHOOL, TORONTO.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—The topic assigned for our consideration has been the subject of so many discussions that it would be difficult to present new matter and devices; but we can at least view the subject from a new angle and try to evolve a system which will result in more effective organization of "Busy work for Junior Pupils."

The supreme aim of all education is the development of control. There are three ideals: mental competency; moral strength; physical power. The weakness of all school work is its tendency to become one-sided. In the management of busy-work this defect may be corrected by the construction and use of what may be termed—for want of a better name—"The Busy-Work Unit."

Before speaking of the meaning and nature of this term, let me try first to show to you the necessity for this "Unit." You are not interested in a new tool until you realize your need of it.

At the end of your school day did you ever ask yourself the question, "What have I accomplished to-day in my seat-work exercises? Of course, Busy-work Exercises were assigned in the different subjects, but what part of the child has been developed? Has there been any growth?" Very frequently you will discover that the development (if you can find any) has been one-sided, possibly all mental—no physical or moral.

In assigning your exercises, you intended to keep in mind all the educational principles and maxims and the three-fold aim; but, somehow, the "subject" loomed so big before you that you forgot the important things and planned for the "subject"—and incidentally for the examination. The child and his needs were forgotten.

It was under circumstances similar to these that the thought came—"Why not frame a new kind of time-table, in which the *general aim* for each exercise is stated instead of the *subject*. This new time-table could then be made a *basis* for the assignment of the subject and each day the specific exercises in the subject

could be noted in the teacher's Busy-Work Book. This Busy-Work Book would show the logical development of each subject.

The construction of the new Busy-Work Time-table was then attempted—the following outline first being made:—

#### MENTAL COMPETENCY.

1. Development exercises.
2. Review exercises.
3. Exercises for the acquisition of general knowledge.
4. Special exercises to suit the individual needs of the individual pupil.

#### PHYSICAL CONTROL.

1. Constructive work and art.
2. Measuring exercises (inch, pint, quart, gallon,) etc.

#### MORAL STRENGTH.

1. Supplementary reading.
2. Incidental exercises.

Special work in special subjects was then noted under each heading. (Incidentally—This method necessitates logical development of a subject both in Recitation and Seat-Work exercises.)

The next step was the arrangement of these exercises, keeping in mind the question of mental and physical fatigue. From this standpoint it was quite obvious that the child must not be kept too great a length of time at table, seat, or blackboard—nor should he be kept too long at one kind of mental exercise. But this difficulty arose: the child had completed one or two exercises from each of the above divisions, had made the round of table, seat and blackboard, had, in fact, completed the Busy-Work programme—but only the first session of the morning was over. It was, therefore, evident that the Busy-Work Time-table could be repeated. Exercises in different subjects could be taken, but the aim would remain the same, the proper balance being maintained. The circle was completed the second time before dismissal. Hence the name—"Busy-Work Unit."

The working out of this "Unit" in the school-room was carefully watched. One day Bobby remarked that he could complete the arithmetic problems very quickly, but it took him a much longer time to finish the language exercise. Billy said that it was the opposite way with him, and asked this question: "If I have not finished my number exercise before going to the work-table may I complete it when I return to my seat before beginning my language work?" The teacher gave the desired permission—and at the same time struck out on the "Busy Work Unit" the *time* allotted to *individual exercise* and noted the time for the *Unit* only—another change from the usual timetable. Its value was soon apparent. At the end of the Busy-Work Unit few, if any, pupils made the familiar remark "I had not time to finish."

Another point was noted: The exercises in construction art and blackboard work should be the same for all sections; the review exercises and the exercises for the acquisition of general knowledge may be the same, but each section must have its own *development* exercises, and in assigning this exercise it must be remembered that definite logical thought and systematic arrangement of work can be expected from the child only when the exercise assigned him is definite, neatly arranged and logically related to previous exercises in that subject, both in Busy-Work and the Recitation. This is the only exercise of the Unit that requires careful examination. The exercises for the acquisition of general knowledge should be self-verifying and, for the other, a glance should suffice—the best work and workers being commended show self-verifying box. (The examination of this special work is discussed under "Organization" and the logical development of a subject will be illustrated from the chart before you.)

In the construction and use of a "Busy Work Unit" several factors must be considered. The question of physical and mental fatigue has already been mentioned. We noted the necessity for frequent change of position. There must also be constant change of *material*. Busy-Work material requiring delicacy of touch and accuracy of arrangement must alternate with coarser material necessitating the use of a different set of muscles.



Each pupil should have at least two "individual boxes"—one containing an adequate supply of number material; and the other, suitable supplies for Reading, Language and General knowledge. (Individual boxes in Arithmetic shown.)

Just a word relative to the preparation of material. The principle is—the maximum of work for the pupil and the minimum for the teacher. At the end of each term the pupil to be promoted prepares the boxes for the new incoming pupils. Many valuable suggestions as to improvements in the box and its contents will be given by the pupils who have had actual experience in their use, and have discovered their weaknesses and limitations. Many suitable supplies may be purchased.

Classification and Organization is an important consideration. The following plan has been found to be practical and practicable.

Divide the pupils into four basic sections—A B C D. (Classes may be combined for suitable subjects and frequent readjustments must be made according to the rate of progress of the individual.)

At the word of command A passes to the front for a Recitation; C goes to the work table or blackboard; B and D remain seated. Each pupil at the work-table is responsible for his material and its careful arrangement. Waste matter is placed neatly in baskets below the work tables.

The pupils reciting are dismissed first—a few minutes before the time stated on the Recitation Time-Table.

The teacher then examines the work in construction and the blackboard exercises, and looks at the self-verifying work. The pupils on the floor then go to their seats.

For the next period, B (which has been seated) goes to the front; and D (seated last period) passes to table or blackboard.

When each section has recited once the Development Exercises are examined. The teacher examines the work of the highest section (or a written exercise is handed in); reliable pupils from each of the other sections examine the work of the next *lower* grade; those not otherwise occupied study supplementary reading.

(The "charts" are here explained.)

In conclusion let me ask you if you can appreciate this little poem, written by a primary teacher:—

## FAGGED OUT.

I want to let go,  
To drop the whole thing,  
The worries, the frets,  
The sorrows, the sins.  
Just to let myself down  
On the bed or the ground—  
Anywhere, so it's down—  
And let myself go.

I want to forget,  
And I don't want to say  
*What* I want to forget.  
And I don't want to think;  
Just to let down my nerves,  
Just to smooth out my brain,  
Just to sleep. And that's all.

Please leave me alone  
With your pillows and things;  
'Tisn't that that I want,  
Nor a doctor, nor folks.  
I just want to let go.  
Oh, I want to let go.

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*THE RURAL TEACHER, A SOCIAL LEADER.*

G. ALEX. GEMEROY, WINCHESTER, DUNDAS COUNTY.

*Mr. Chairman, and Fellow Teachers,*—On the programme I am listed to present a paper on "The Teacher as a Social Leader." I shall attempt only to give you my two years' experience in a small country school.

When we think of the country school teacher as a social leader of the children, we must bring our minds down to the little things that make for childhood happiness. Two things I had in my favour, the school was comparatively new and my school board was in sympathy with me in everything, and ready to back me financially in any little expenditures I had to make for the children's pleasure.

We all know the ordinary country child's life is most barren of pleasure. They know about work, perhaps, more than they should know, but the little childish joys that brighten the life are so lacking. If it were possible for a teacher to add a little joy each day to the child's life it would make an impression that would never be erased, a little bright picture on Memory's walls. The time spent will be amply repaid in the added affection of the child and the interest he will take in his school work, not to mention the good-will of the parents; for if we win the children's hearts we will also have won the goodwill of the parents; and without these our work would be a heavy load to carry.

In order that you may understand my work I will divide the little pleasures into three parts: (1) the pleasures we had in the school room, (2) the playground pleasures, and (3) the pleasures we took altogether beyond either the playground or the school room.

Early in the school year, we organized a Progress Club with a President, a Secretary, an Executive Committee, and Indoor and Outdoor committees. We had a School Paper which recorded the work and events of our school and our community. Needless to say, I was an advisory head of all the committees. We chose as our motto: "Improvements," that is, the improvement of our school, our playground and ourselves.

The officers were elected in a businesslike manner, thus giving the children their first lesson in the conducting of a business meeting. A meeting of the club was held each Friday afternoon from 3.30 to 4.00; but the work of improvement was going on all the time. The programme for each meeting consisted of a discussion of the improvements that we could make and a recall and broadening of those we had made. This was interspersed with literary selections and bright songs by the school, or the dramatizing of some lesson or story.

The discussions on improvements were often in connection with the farm. Frequently, the boys and girls read selections from agricultural journals or the agricultural bulletins issued by the Government. We encouraged the older girls to prepare papers on the home arts as, butter-making, bread-making, cake-making, preserving, etc., and the boys presented papers on the making of maple syrup and maple sugar, planting and cultivation of corn, etc.

We put ourselves in touch with schools in the West and in the Middle and Southern States, where the environment, climate and productions were entirely different from ours, and we had the corresponding classes exchange a few letters, comparing their sports, work, and surroundings. It was an education, and many of them kept up their correspondence with their unknown friends for weeks, always bringing their letters to school to be read; but, as a whole school, we exchanged letters only a couple of times, or until we had told our friends all about our school, our homes and surroundings, and had become familiar with theirs. It was wonderful the difference it makes to live in another part of the world. One boy, from the Middle States, said that when his letter was read aloud, about the sugar-bush, they had a big laugh—thought it was a joke. Of course, in the next letter, we had to tell that school all about our maple sugar product, and in exchange we learned of some of theirs that were just as interesting to us. You can readily see what a pleasure this was to children who never before had received a letter.

Great interest centred in the committee for the beautifying of the school-room and I must say that every one gladly gave assistance to this committee. It was like the harmonious work-



ing of a bee-hive. We got two bright green window-boxes filled with flowering plants for the two end windows, and hanging baskets and plants in some of the others where they would not obstruct the light. The children took great interest in the growing plants and blossoms. The care of the plants and flowers I shared with the large girls and by so doing they were able to know how to care for flowers at home, which you can easily imagine they were not long in starting. Many homes that never had thought of beauty or of having window-boxes or flowers, are proud in the possession of both this year. And so our school-life broadens till its influence reaches farther than we imagine. We framed twenty-five coloured pictures of Canadian birds and hung these on the walls, with the King and Queen in the place of honour. Individual drinking-cups and paper towels were added to our sanitary improvements quite naturally, and were gladly endorsed by the trustees.

For rainy days and stormy weather we had crokinole, checkers, marbles and bean-bags; and many kinds of pleasant games as blind man's buff, and drop the handkerchief, all supervised by the teacher. Needless to say we did not find rainy days tiresome, nor was the attendance at all affected by the weather for every one wanted to be on hand to have a share in the fun. As we all took our luncheon to school, it meant a whole day together. Even those who lived quite near to the school brought their luncheons so that they might not miss the pleasures of the day.

In fine weather, I insisted that all should take their pleasure outdoors in the fresh air. But this was not a difficult thing to persuade them to do, for the outdoor committee had made the school grounds as attractive as the schoolroom was on the rainy days. We built an up-to-date teeter which was guaranteed to accommodate eight at one time; this was never idle. Two big swings were put up and a basket ball outfit was installed. Hurdle jumping, croquet, base-ball, and football were all played in their season. One man said it was like a fair all the year round, and I can assure you I had no trouble to get the scholars to attend regularly and punctually. Children living over a mile from the school would be there one-half hour before time so as to have a good swing and a teeter. Several farmers complained, good-

naturedly, that they could not get their boys to stay out to help with the fall-ploughing and they had to hire help. "There is too much attraction at school for any one to miss a day," they said.

This play together on the school ground was a great bond of friendship, uniting teacher and children and, through them, the parents. I had no school factions to contend with, for we were a united family and their confidence in me was so helpful in controlling any little difficulty that might arise. One little girl had such confidence in me that she intrusted me with the purchase of a chew of gum; and I have no doubt, had I asked her, she would also have lent it to me.

At noon hour, on a pleasant day, it was a sight to remember when our merry crowd of children were enjoying themselves. So busy were they with their play, there was no time for mischief and I seldom had to admonish them; the very fact that I was present in person, taking part in the play, was an incentive to gentlemanly behaviour and language.

On one occasion, the boys and I got our heads together and thought a little surprise would be big fun. So one Saturday, after the snow fell, we made a trip to the bush and brought back to the school a number of evergreen trees and fastened them securely around the school ground. These trees remained green all winter and were a very pretty addition, and the boys were proud of the improved appearance they gave.

We planted tulips in the fall and sweet peas and nasturtiums in the spring and tried to have cut flowers in the school-room all summer, from the time of the early spring flowers. There was no need of a committee for this for the children brought these as their hearts prompted them.

On Arbor Day, we decided to do something special and in talking it over with the several committees our plans were all laid for a big day's enjoyment along the right lines. All were there bright and early, armed with shovels, rakes, clean dust-cloths and mops. I provided soap and polish and flower seeds. We divided our number for outdoor and indoor beautifying of our school home. I had told the girls to bring big aprons and wear dresses they were not afraid to soil, for the girls' part of the indoor committee had decided that the windows and wood-

work would be better with some soap and water, and there were a dozen other things they had thought of doing to make the school-room clean and home-like.

One boy brought a horse and a light-wagon to help to bring trees from the bush. After I had started four of the bigger boys digging holes for the trees and another group raking the yard and picking up the stray things and still another bunch digging up the school garden, the rest of the boys drove off to the bush nearby to dig up a few little maples we had selected beforehand. This proved a pretty hard task and by the time we had four trees properly transplanted we were ready for a little fun. In the meantime the school garden had been partly spaded and the yard almost raked clean, while the girls had worked wonders with the dust-cloths, soap and water.

We were now as hungry as bears and all sat down and ate luncheon together, in real old-fashioned, picnic style. We had lemonade and a treat for all. After an hour's rest, we went back to the enjoyment of the day. We now had all the girls outside, the bigger ones keeping an eye on the little children and keeping them out of mischief while we planted a few early flower seeds and finished up all our little tasks. Then we had an hour's play together before we went home, so tired and so happy with our day's outing.

Now we come to the enjoyment taken together beyond the school-room or the playground. First I will speak of our trips to the woods in search of birds, flowers and trees and to read some of the lessons written in Old Mother Nature's Book. We started right after our mid-day luncheon and spent the most of the afternoon collecting trophies to bring back, such as crimson leaves, samples of different kinds of woods, and a few late flowers, and, much to the horror of the girls, a garter snake which we kept for a few days and then gave its freedom.

Near the school there was a field which we were allowed to use at times for football and hockey, for in the winter it was always covered with ice. We had some pleasant times with the boys on skates and the matches were quite an event. Football had its turn in the early fall. The football and hockey matches were always held on Saturday afternoons or on holidays much to the enjoyment of the bigger boys of the section.

One day this winter, when the snow was just right for rolling, we built two immense snow forts and had a real battle—one side being British and the other German. I fear that if the play-time had not come to an end when it did we would have made short work of both garrisons.

Our Christmas festivities took the form of a sleigh ride provided by two of the trustees. We drove to a nearby town where we had chartered the moving picture show for an hour. A number of special films suitable for the children were shown. As many of the children had never seen motion pictures, this was indeed a rare treat for them. Afterwards we returned to our school and had our mid-day luncheon together and the whole section turned out to hear our little concert and see our Christmas tree laden with little tokens of love for all.

The only picnic we had was a union school gathering where not only our section, but the surrounding sections as well, came. There were grandfathers and grandmothers, aunts and uncles, little and big—nobody missed the picnic. Along with my co-workers, I had many things to see to for the children's biggest day of the year, and knowing the things *our* boys and girls enjoyed the most, helped me to plan for the larger gathering. It was a great day for the hearty hand-shake and warm word of greeting from life-long friends and of meeting in holiday mood the older members of the section.

We had all kinds of treats for the children, from pink lemonade down, while for amusements the band furnished music; and the boys and girls ran races of all kinds, even to the wheel-barrow race with the fat boy for the load. Then out in the field, two football teams played a contest game and later others played baseball, while all day long the swings were kept busy. It was an ideal day and was the only summer outing some of the older members of the community had.

During the year, I go home each night, a distance of three miles. When the roads are good, my wheel is the usual conveyance, but when the snow is piled deep, I go on snow-shoes across country. This winter when there was so much ice, I went on my skates for over a week. But when all these means of conveyance fail, I fall back on my old friend "shank's mare." Not the least of our social pleasure was spent in the homes of the



children on stormy nights, when I was not allowed to return to my home through the storm or because of the bad roads. There was always an invitation waiting, and each child had to have its turn with the teacher as a visitor over night at its home. This was an opportunity to become acquainted with the home conditions of the child and of gaining a closer acquaintance with the parents.

My school-year has been one of great pleasure to me and as I look into the happy faces of my scholars I cannot help feeling that it has been the same for my boys and girls.

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## *SCHOOL GARDENS AND THEIR RELATION TO THE RURAL COMMUNITY.*

J. B. DANDENO, M.A., PH.D., INSPECTOR, ELEMENTARY AGRICULTURAL CLASSES FOR ONTARIO.

The pendulum indicating the trend in education has been swinging towards the practical for a decade or more as shown in the development of technical schools, trade schools, farm schools and the like. The rural movement is one aspect of this modification of thought and action. The rural school has been for two or three generations in Canada the chief factor in education, and this is shown from the fact that many people now occupying prominent positions in all walks of life have had their first scholastic education in the rural school—almost universally a one-teacher school. Country life in itself contributes largely towards the education of the senses—seeing, hearing, feeling, touching, tasting and smelling. The boys and girls grow up among the flowers with their wealth of colour and odour. They have listened to the chirp of the cricket, the inspiring drone of the frog, and the song of the bird. They have paddled barefooted in the pools and have fished in the brook. They have learned to avoid the bees' nests and the thistle patch. They have tasted young apples and green cucumbers and have had an experience which may have been unpleasant but it has brought understanding. And while the boy lies across the fence with the aching portion of his anatomy against the rail, he is gaining in wisdom and understanding. Whether the boy or girl rides the horse bare-back or jumps from a beam in the mow, whether the experience is gained from a snow bank or on the top of a load of hay, it is all education in the *practical* and towards independence.

The introduction of the School Garden as a part of the school accommodations of the rural school is designed to provide in a systematic way something of this training of the senses—the training of the physical as well as the moral and the intellectual. A great many of the child's experiences at this stage of his life are experiences merely, and need organization and arrangement. This is where the teacher can do the best work. This is educa-

tion. The ordinary public school studies have been indoor studies which do not link up very closely with the child's experience in the lanes, fields, barnyard and woods. This is where the school garden will assist very materially.

The place of the school garden in the system is to provide a laboratory at the school where the child may apply his experiences under the direction of the teacher, where he may work out, to some extent, what is in him, and, at the same time, obtain training for hand and eye while working in the garden during such periods as may be set aside for this purpose. To make arithmetical problems real this should be connected with something which will show the need of such problem. To give literature vitality, the child's experience must be connected up with the thought of the author.

"Little lamb come here and say  
What you're doing all the day.  
Long enough before you wake  
Breakfast I am glad to take,  
In the meadows eating up  
Daisy, cowslip, buttercup."

It will not take much experience to realize that the author was no farmer. Lambs do not eat buttercups. The buttercup is bitter. But the question was asked to learn, "What you're doing all the day" and not "What do you eat." This furnishes food for thought and for judgment, whether one agrees with the author or not. In the garden we may have cowslips, daisies, and in the fields and roadsides are buttercups.

The management of school gardens is not so difficult as most people suppose, but it requires some knowledge, training and judgment on the part of the teacher and sympathy from the parents. The pupils are in sympathy with it now, far more so than we suppose. The fall is the time to make arrangements for a commencement. Land nearby but not located where it will interfere with the playground, can easily be secured. This should be plowed carefully and left over until the spring, when it should be disked or cultivated thoroughly—the more thoroughly the better. At this season a considerable portion of the school time should be taken in planning, laying out and measuring for paths, individual plots, and for shrubbery. Unless the land for

garden is likely to be permanent, neither shrubs nor trees should be planted. Each pupil if possible should have a plot of land for himself, all his own to manage and care for, having suggestions only from the teacher. For small children, easily grown plants should be suggested, because successes are very encouraging. Directions must be given as to planting, thinning, transplanting, weeding, etc.

In this connection a sort of general festival or holiday, should be arranged for towards the end of June so as to give the pupils a chance to show their parents and others the situation before the closing of school. This will generally solve the problem of care during the summer, because older people are always ready to encourage children when they see a good effort made at the start. In every case it would appear to be wise to have the gardens fenced to keep animals out. Nothing is so discouraging as to see the results of the children's efforts destroyed by dogs, sheep, hens or other animals.

The care during the summer vacation is always a serious obstacle in the way of success. In fact, it has been said that the summer care is the most serious proposition of all, because the Board of Trustees have no claim upon the teacher during vacation. It is quite probable, however, that the Board has some claim upon the teacher during vacation, because she is engaged by the year. In Michigan and in other States, the teacher is hired by the month and only for eight or nine months of the year, consequently the school garden, for country schools, will not make rapid progress. The unanimous opinion in those States is that the Ontario method in this respect is far in advance of theirs, and in some respects the Ontario method is being copied, in so far as the teacher of Agriculture in High Schools is concerned. In some cases the engagement is for eleven months, and others for twelve months, the teacher being expected to be on the job practically the year round. It is not intended here to suggest that the rural school teacher with a school garden should remain at, or near, the school to look after the school garden during the summer, but the intention is to make it clear that the teacher is directly responsible for the care during summer, and should undertake all arrangements to have it looked after. To assist in the management of this the following sugges-



tions are given: The farmers in the immediate neighbourhood should be induced to prepare with the teacher, some useful experiment which will ensure the attention of the farmer when the teacher is absent, one kind of problem for one year, and another kind for the following year. Moreover, a good deal of this can be managed by sowing, or planting, certain kinds of crops, selecting those which require least attention during the summer vacation. Grain crops all mature and should be harvested in the vacation months, while root crops are harvested in September and October. Knowing this some suitable selection could be made. But if it appears to be necessary to hire some one to look after the gardens during the summer, then by all means hire some one to do so, because in this respect there is nothing so disheartening as to see a neglected garden. Changing teachers is a difficult aspect of the proposition, not only with regard to the actual care and management during summer, but also to the success during the spring months. It is said that a teacher expecting to leave at the close of the spring term, will not put forth much effort to develop the garden in the spring. There is probably not very much in this as has been proved again and again in the last two years. In fact instances are common where the garden conducted by her predecessor has been a strong inducement for the teacher to take up the work. This statement has frequently been made: "I found such a nice school garden here when I came that though I have no training in Agriculture I determined to do the best I could to carry on the work." The success that crowned their efforts surprised even themselves.

The teaching of Agriculture must be systematically undertaken in connection with garden work, whether it be school gardens or home gardens. The amount of time is not great—one hour per week—but it is intended that some regular time should be set apart on the regular programme for correlating ideas and gathering up the threads developed in the garden. The blank form in the back of the teacher's register gives an outline of the work to be carried on, and the scheme is sufficiently broad to ensure suitable material for any locality in Ontario. The Department, however, requires that records be kept regularly and systematically of whatever work has been done. A uniform manual for the teacher would be a useful help but it would have to be

broad enough in scope to meet the diversified conditions to be found in the different parts of Ontario.

The home gardens are a prominent part of the course in Agriculture and are a necessary part where the school garden is not maintained. There is no reason why both should not be attempted, but one of them is necessary in connection with the teaching of Agriculture in order to qualify for the grants. There are several difficulties to contend with in carrying out home gardens successfully. As a rule there is too little instruction given to the pupil, because the teacher cannot visit each pupil often enough. Frequently, beyond distributing seed or other material, the pupil is not visited at all, and receives no instruction whatever, unless the parent undertakes this duty. The District Representative of the Department of Agriculture, in localities where there is a School Fair organization, attends to the home projects, but very frequently only a few of the pupils undertake a problem and the others have no part in the work. Moreover, the District Representative is a busy man during summer and cannot devote much time towards following up the projects undertaken by the pupils. He tries to visit as many as he can and those as often as possible; but the most he can do is to visit each pupil twice during the summer, but generally the pupil gets one visit, aside from the School Fair.

The School Fair is not an easy proposition at best to manage, and it has several defects. Given a fair chance and some encouragement it will do an immense amount of good in the rural districts. This part of the Agricultural Education is under the Public School Inspector in co-operation with the District Representative of the Department of Agriculture.

The attitude of the Department of Education is to encourage to the fullest extent every useful feature of rural education. It provides a course of training for teachers, and it encourages both teachers and trustees by grants in money. The Regulations are to be modified from time to time to meet the needs of the situation and there is every reason to hope for advancement both rapid and permanent. The High Schools are preparing to offer classes in Agriculture which will ensure training for teachers, and it may not be long before our Universities will give credit for Agriculture as one of the Matriculation requirements. This will

assist in the advancement more perhaps than any other single factor. The American Universities have given credit for Agriculture in Matriculation on a basis similar to that of other subjects, and they deem themselves justified in doing so.

When every rural school has a school garden, and Agriculture is taken up systematically by a teacher trained in this subject, and the rural school is a centre of social life of the community then we shall see less of the move to the "high lights" of the city and a steadier and more contented country people.

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*THE KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY.*

MISS LILLIAN B. HARDING, WITHROW AVENUE SCHOOL, TORONTO.

*Mr. President and Principals of the Public School Section of the Elementary Department of the O.E.A.*

Because one of the most far-reaching and revolutionary principles ever introduced into education was discovered by the last and greatest of a splendid quartette of educational reformers, Friedrich Fræbel, we are here to-day to consider the direct practical application of his philosophy, as demonstrated by the Kindergarten, upon the development of the child, as he approaches the natural and much-to-be-desired imaginary line which should exist between the Kindergarten and the Primary Grade. With all its shortcomings the Kindergarten Department has kept its light trimmed and burning, through modifications in theory and practice to meet present-day situations, and through the elimination of much that was valueless in Kindergarten procedure, followed by the substitution of methods and materials true to the spirit of Fræbel though not perhaps laid down in his original practice. We have come to realize that the whole truth is not in the possession of any one leader or department.

While the essential character of Kindergarten must survive, future years will most assuredly bring a larger and better harvest, for the fruit of Fræbelian labour will ripen in the larger area of the Kindergarten-Primary. Kindergarten work has not heretofore introduced the child to reading and writing. It has, however, aimed to develop a strong basis for the interpretation of thought through morning talks, songs, games, stories and literary memorization. An intelligent idea of the power of language expression is the fundamental principle involved in reading and writing. To make the Kindergarten, however, more visibly an integral part of the school, to so unify the work with that of the elementary grade that the process of education may go on from the beginning without any of the way-marks being indefinite or unintelligible, seems to be the problem. And every righteous sacrifice should be made to solve it, for the purpose of the Kindergarten is only that of all education—to give each individual



ability and power in the social life, and to prepare him to live well in the Kindergarten and in the life to follow. The first mission of the Kindergarten is to the school, the second to the home, for every well regulated Kindergarten has its mothers' club—a link cementing the home and the entire school for all time.

No matter how thoroughly we may understand the immediate significance of any grade, we are unduly limited until we see the connection between our own section and those before and after. It is a matter for encouragement, therefore, that *experimentation* of which there has been far too little, is becoming popular, and that public sentiment is ripe for innovations; for in order to be in a position to produce that which is educationally serviceable and progressive, we must "prove all things; and hold fast that which is good." The willingness to now and then try an experiment even at the risk of making a mistake or two is the only path which leads to knowledge and progress, and the day has not yet dawned when loyalty to Frœbel would exclude light from other sources, for then his fundamental law of unity would be but a plausible inconsistency.

The theory that formal education should be postponed on the one hand, and on the other that the seed-time of life should not be delayed, has caused endless agitation. The educational leaven, it would seem, has had to come from the Kindergarten. If we can guard against the superficially pleasing, which is often fundamentally ineffective, we may be able to secure the right relationship between formality and freedom which will result in continuity and progression in school work. It is going to be somewhat difficult as is the mission of this paper—to point a path which has not yet been trodden. But to adhere to the basic principle of the Kindergarten—self activity—to save the pupils from arrested development, modernly called retardation, or inability to live up to one's greatest possibilities, both the Kindergarten and the elementary grade like Dickens' "Poor Jo," must "move on." Just where! At present we are trying to find out. But "move on." we must and should.

The Kindergarten was made for the child, not the child for the Kindergarten, therefore, there should be no vulnerable points in its armour. We must adjust, if necessary, our practice to the

demands without and within. The Primary teacher to-day is no longer wedded to the tradition of the little red school-house and the three R's, but endeavours whenever possible to consider the native impulses of the child and to furnish for him the best environment, knowing that the activities resident within him will do the rest. To the Would-be, too-conservative and over cautious Kindergartner one would say that the Kindergarten has gathered too much momentum to be side-tracked unless, of course, it fails to absorb and to respond to essential merits and adjustments as they may arise. Perpetual reaction against things as they are is a condition of educational progress. The need for a closer relation between the Kindergarten and the elementary grade is, therefore, forcing a reconsideration of many points in Kindergarten and elementary practice. These two grades should naturally conform more closely to each other in their educational means and in the arrangement of their various school activities. While some lines of work have been pursued which might have resulted in a closer relationship, still the possibility of a very tangible union has been thwarted by the power with which each has stamped its work with a formalism peculiar to itself. Every point of contact between valid Primary work and valid Kindergarten work indicates growth and progression for each. Kindergarten is real life, too—the life of to-day as well as a preparation for the future. There has been just a danger of living too much in the far-off day and thus failing to make our work sufficiently telling in this most vital of all times, *now*. It is quite natural for the little child to become eager to interpret the hidden mystery of the printed page and if through suggestiveness we develop self-expression, then are we not in danger of delaying growth by trying to satisfy him with something entirely different from that which he desires? While many of the criticisms of the Kindergarten have been far from discriminating, "where there is a little smoke there must be some fire." Therefore, honest inquiry should be welcomed and reconstruction on this point might be advisedly considered. To spend time and labour fitting the child to material, instead of adapting material to him, is *enveloping* rather than *developing* him. Why prolong the feeding of the child on milk when he is able to take solid food, which will enable him to live more independently *now*, not six months

or a year from now? Our real problem comes to be then, how to give the Kindergarten-Primary child the greatest amount of good, and still preserve the relationship between it and the freedom with which this must be done.

July, 1915—through a generous and far-seeing Education Department, a Summer School was organized in Toronto, to enable Primary teachers to acquire some knowledge of Kindergarten principles and practice, and to enable teachers holding a Kindergarten Director's Certificate to acquire some knowledge of Primary work, and therefore obtain what is known as a Kindergarten-Primary certificate.

September, 1915—a class in Withrow Avenue Kindergarten not ready for promotion and yet possessing a measure of efficiency, mechanical skill and potential power, was eager to have the windows of reality opened wider; not that the children had outgrown or loved Kindergarten less, but that they were mentally prepared to love a Kindergartenized Primary more. To rest satisfied with the means at hand, to deny these children what they were most concerned in, the book, to give them a set of symbols other than those which would furnish most significance to their experience, would be like proclaiming a one-sided liberty.

Prof. Dewey says, "The child should have a personal interest in what is read. A personal hunger for it, a personal power of satisfying the appetite."

To halt now when opportunity was afforded to build a bridge across the hitherto untrodden, would be like burying a talent through an ignominious form of caution, living a quarter of a century back, and refusing to go on because it was not the beaten track of our forefathers. Any righteous sacrifice, if it could be called such, seemed legitimate if it could make the Kindergarten department a visibly integral part of the school.

1st, What was to be done?

The answer soon suggested itself, begin where you are. Try the untried. Continue pure Kindergarten work for those at this stage in the Kindergarten, and then reconstruct the old tools to a new use for those who demand more. Give these fertile little minds a portion of what they ask for—the open book—the fruit of which could already be seen in embryo, the lessening by

at least a term of the time of these children later on in the Primary room.

2nd, How was the work to be accomplished?

Opportunity knocked at the door of an unused class-room adjacent to the Kindergarten. It speedily became the Annex. Kindergarten tables and chairs—familiar furniture—preserved in the concrete the social atmosphere so strongly manifested in the activities of little children and so deep-rooted in the human soul. No artificial environment which so easily removes the child from real life was created. It was soon demonstrated that while Kindergarten is not the place for dry facts and set formulas, neither is the presence of Frœbel's gifts and occupations alone necessary for the full expression of his spirit and principles. The Kindergarten programme remained undisturbed. We met in the Kindergarten as a unity every morning and at 12 o'clock sang our good-bye together. The community spirit was still enjoyed. Work and play were still closely related and remained attitudes of the mind. Songs, games and stories were taken with the whole social group, as usual, also morning talks or conversations which invariably prove in the Kindergarten one of the best means of laying a foundation for good work in English later on.

The introduction of reading, the last and new interest, was but a part of the larger interest in the life the children were living. Language, the most universal means of social communication, had an added interest. Thoughts and feelings were awakened which fostered a desire within the children to find out more for themselves, and power was given them to do so, hence every means of expression was ever deepening impression. Reading and drawing, reading and story telling, reading and constructive work, in short, all the occupations were related, and the happy, joyous life of the Kindergarten child was increased, because he had added to his capital stock the power to travel along the road between the Kindergarten and the Primary room and read the sign boards along the way.

In February, 1916, a small percentage of pupils who had begun the work in September, 1915, was permitted to remain by the request of parents the remainder of the year in the Kindergarten. From these pupils a definite result of a year's work in



conjunction with the Kindergarten may be obtained from their standing in June. A new junior class was formed from the Kindergarten in February to take the place of those who had passed out, and with these children the initial part of Form I was begun. A little faith and much enthusiasm are the elements of success in everything, and truly the abundance of the return in the interest and joy of the children robbed endurance of difficulty and made a pleasure of duty.

The Kindergarten can co-operate more intelligently and effectively with a knowledge of Primary work and should undoubtedly be better fitted to carry the dynamic of her method into the grade and thereby co-operate with its forces successfully. The season is opportune to set sail, to make the best use of compass and chart, to be the pilot of the child's career and launch out, if necessary, into the deeper waters of the Kindergarten-Primary. We are prone to rest content when finding a part of any great truth, but this state of self-satisfaction and finality is forgetting that liberty is a complex truth, that there are still heights to climb where the vision will be clearer, and we shall be able to see the result of the tested and the tried, the result of earnest, broad-minded study and experiment in which worth, by being proved, alone survives. If we would grow we must leave aside all prejudice, leave behind the army of subjunctives, those who are always about to do, and join the invincible army of the imperatives, those who do, who never turn their backs, but "march breast forward."

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*SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLMASTERS AFTER THE WAR.*

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It will of course be clearly obvious why this paper will be only suggestive. That is all it can be. It will outline in as brief statement as possible the outlook suggested in the original subject allotted to me, "Our Preparation to meet the Immigration Following the Great War."

We assume at the outset that after the war there will be a great flow of immigration to this country. This assumption needs no elaboration or argument. There will pour into this country mixed thousands and tens and hundreds of thousands speaking more languages than Babel ever heard, nursing all the antagonisms of Europe, and cherishing all the vagaries of undemocratic peoples. There will come the good, the bad—from alien countries and ally countries. Last week in my own city on one day 150 alien Austrians registered. In Fort William, the different nationalities represented in a settlement school, in June, 1915, totalled 22, Finns, Greeks, Italians, Norwegians, Hebrews, Swedes, Austrians, Ruthenians, Russians, Germans, Dalmatians, and a dozen others.

The children of such as these will be on our streets and in our schools. But these aliens will become good Canadian patriots. Our immigrants must get a square deal. Canada must become to them a land which represents the rights of man, and the privileges of the poor, in a sense which did not obtain in the lands from which they may come: a land of liberty, of prosperity, and of equal rights.

Now, "all educational effort should be directed to bring about the change between ignorance and intelligence: between helplessness and ability to do things worth while; between selfishness and public service; and to bring about a quick conscience instead of no sense of proportion or responsibility." A very earnest and good and generally optimistic man expressed his opinion last week that the instinct to fight was in the blood of the race, and that he never expected to see the time when any restraint of a social, economic, or international kind would be able to secure anything

like assured and permanent world peace. Well, if we are to think of restraint merely as applied from the outside, perhaps he is right. But what reader of the history of humanity has not seen many illustrations of the powers of ideas to modify and change radically such a seemingly enduring thing as human instinct? The idea has become fixed in the minds of many that men ought to be able to live together in peace and harmony in this world, and we believe there is strength and divinity enough in that idea to assure us absolutely that it can win out and will win out, yet in human history. So are we to work steadily towards our goal, our reward the success that attends our efforts in creating if you will a new heavens and a new earth.

Now what does it all mean? Just this: that our schools have much to do with fixing the standards—more than any other influence—and making the sense of responsibility quick, active, determinative, as to whether the man's conduct shall be according to his standards or not: "that our schools may remedy the lack of a sense of proportion; that our schools may bring about some high dominating purpose." Just this, that our schools must develop "vital Canadian citizenship among our home-born, and our foreign-born;" that we must try to develop a race of healthy Canadians; that we must deal with backwardness and retardation; with physique, health, and mentality; that we must not allow the course of study to crystallize; and finally, that we who are the organizers and directors of this work, must be men of ideas and ideals.

That is to say, there are three features to be looked after. First, the curriculum; second, the school; third, the schoolmaster. Before we can deal with the curriculum and the school it is essential for us to know what special purpose our system of education is to serve.

In any case our schools must teach more than the three R's. Why should we praise so much any system that has success in producing ability to read and write? That can be done, we now know in a few months. The methods that have hitherto been used have made a most tedious task of what is a trivial task. I think much time is now wasted in these subjects; but even then we may have lots of time for other things. What other things shall our schools undertake to teach?

First, we must train to fit for the occupations of our people; second, we must train for observing, thinking, planning to produce an efficiency in lines of work new in our land. Much of our school work is now suitable for all normal children. Every normal child can learn to read, though some do less readily than others. Every normal child can learn to write and perform simple problems with number. But we must attend to the child that is concrete-minded. More hand-work must be given. The kindergarten work, sewing, primary-constructive work, wood-work, household science, must be increased. They enable the children to appreciate the means and methods by which society accomplishes its work. They do not teach occupations. You all know that many people used to think that wood-working in schools was going to make carpenters of the boys. It does no such thing. It simply provides an experience by which the boy knows how the world lives. These "practical arts" or "industrial arts" can be so directed as to become preparation for work of a particular kind. So I think that these forms of activity in the school must be increased tremendously to meet the new conditions that are now arising.

Let us classify. There are the main occupations of (1) agriculture, (2) the professions, (3) the trades, and (4) home-making. There is not time to elaborate on these. To the training required for these four and their allied branches there should be added that academic training the curriculum of which may be included to a considerable extent in that planned for the four above, but which will prepare many of our pupils to work in original research. There has never existed in the world's history such an opportunity in research as is ours to-day. This opportunity combined with the natural resources and climatic conditions of this country puts it within the power of our people to lead the world in service to mankind, and to carry it to such a plane of civilization as our fathers never dreamed of. There is a tide in the affairs of nations as well as of individuals which taken at the full leads on to fortune. It almost staggers us when we look beyond the horizon of our daily life and see the possibilities that are ours and think that we as leaders may not realize our possibilities, "Behold, now is the accepted time, now is the day of salvation." It was a Toronto Canadian who, a few months ago,



put to a successful test, the killing of disease germs in polluted water, simply by turning into it violet rays. I was amazed recently in looking through one of the magazines to note that glass pie plates, pudding dishes and other cooking utensils to take the place of metal ones are being made by the addition of a small amount of one of the compounds. We must prepare our curriculum to make our pupils "fit" physically, mechanically, mentally, what you will, but seized with the idea of efficiency for service. For the halt, the maimed, the blind—we shall have them all—a practical curriculum fitting them for service to develop better methods of transportation, better means of communication, better modes of living, healthier homes, more nourishing foods, more suitable clothing, the helping of the blind to see, the deaf to hear, the dumb to speak, the decrepit to rejoice, and whatever goes to make a free, a contented, a prosperous, and a happy people.

Our Government has made provision for the establishment of practically every kind of school, to meet the varying conditions that may arise. There is legislation for night schools, settlement schools, vocational schools, industrial schools, to be established, aided by Government grant, under Government supervision. The Adolescent Age School Act permits of local Boards to raise the school age and require pupils to attend all or part time. Again to classify: we have provision for schools:

(a) for those who are to continue at school in urban communities.

(b) for those who have gone to work in urban communities.

(c) for rural communities.

To summarize, as presented in the report of the Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education:

1. Hand-training and prevocational education in the public schools after the age of 12 to reveal to himself, to his parents, and to his teacher the bent of the child's ability.

2. Something in the school classes to make pupils want to continue at school as long as they can.

3. Some provision in the way of industrial and technical education for those who can continue at school from 12 to 16.

4. Continuation classes to be attended while pupils are following some occupation to earn their living.

5. Evening classes.

6. Technical schools to which men and women can come back for longer or shorter periods, after they have been working for some years.

In the rural schools, in addition to itinerant instructors in agriculture, horticulture, bee-keeping, poultry-raising, dairying, the late acting Minister of Education has planned for instruction in farm work for returned soldiers.

To sum up:

The curriculum will differentiate urban centres, and rural districts.

1. Every curriculum should be prepared to develop the power to think.

2. Every curriculum should be prepared for cultural purposes, and, in view of our changing conditions, for training for original research.

3. Special curricula must be prepared to educate for the chief occupations of our country.

Secondly, The School.

More and more is the new building meeting modern demands, not only in lighting, heating, and ventilating, but in having its equipment completely at the service of the whole district. An essential part of the equipment will be a good library. To one who studies the advantages of the consolidated rural school, the results are so eminently beneficial that the wonder is such slow progress is being made in our Province. The consolidated school is, however, coming. Every county should provide a number, if not all, of its schools with a residence, and a few acres of land, for experimental purposes. "There is no equipment so essential in rural life to-day as a good teacher permanently established in an official residence, and a small farm, teaching school.

A school ought to be an organization to give the young that environment and those experiences that will make them socially efficient. The school ought not to be something wholly different from the home, and having only a remote connection with the home. "Its main function should be to supplement the home. It should be a society not essentially different from other societies, where teachers and children live a form of community life in the

most natural possible way." What is the ideal school? May I quote from the Normal School History of Education? "The ideal school of the future will exhibit community life; it will engage in types of occupation that resemble the occupations of the larger world; and the pupils will develop in these occupations a desire for art, literature, history, and science. The ideal school will correspond to the ideal home; in such a home there is the freest interchange of statement, inquiry, and response. The child participates in household occupations, and learns the rights of others; he takes excursions into fields and woods where he finds out many things in regard to nature and the activities of man. In such a school the passive reception of knowledge will disappear. A new discipline will take the place of the old; it will be self-discipline and self-reliance arising out of the child's self-activity."

Finally, the teacher.

#### 1. His Position.

1. His appointment should be "for life and good conduct."

2. His authority as principal should be supreme and final, with an appeal to the government whose nominee he is. He should have a large authority in the appointment of his assistants, and I should be much pleased to see that item, in concrete form, placed among the resolutions for presentation to the Minister.

#### 2. His Equipment.

1. He should be well-educated, well-read, well-prepared for his work. I believe in the doctrine of "preparedness" for the teacher.

2. He should be moral. He almost invariably is clean and honourable, but I believe there is large room for bigger and finer professional spirit.

3. He should be a man of ideas and ideals. He should take himself much more seriously than he does, when he knows there is no power to-day so great as his, lifting the world to nobler ideals and higher civilization. He is a moulder of public opinion; he should be a leader in all reform movements.

He must have the ideal of The Great Teacher: "I am come to work the works of Him that sent Me. I am come not to be ministered unto but to minister."

How about the new Canada? Let me paraphrase the leading editorial in a recent edition of one of our great dailies. How will it fare with Canada in the dawn of the Great To-morrow?

To the schoolmaster that question is very pertinent. It must not, it cannot be blinked. It cannot be dismissed. For Canada, these half dozen eventful years are big with promise—civil and religious; political and ecclesiastical; social and moral. The old dividing lines in thought and in life and in service are being blotted out. To-morrow will see a new Canada. Already is heard the new note of an international politic. Already a new evangel of unselfish service is sounded. How about the new Canada? Let there be no mistake: the Canada of to-morrow will not be the Canada of to-day. As never before this country is now in the central sweep of the great new current of world-life. There is not a life-impulse astir anywhere, not a throb of world-passion, but will course through Canada's veins and change the pulse beat in Canada's heart. Canadians must face their own situation with their own eyes open, their own heart courageous, and their own faith strong, as did their fathers in the brave days of old.

We must grip the problem of Canadianizing the alien multitudes that will soon be pouring in upon us; of training them for upright and honourable citizenship in this Canadian democracy; of unifying the antagonistic elements in our population, the racial antipathies, the conflicting sectional interests. There must come to you and to me and to all leaders in social and material affairs the compelling inspiration of a great cause.

Did ever the possibility of a great achievement face a nation such as the one facing us to-day? And oh! the peril of failure in the crisis that is upon us! And the cause, the achievement! To reproduce in every-day life a brotherhood of love, a charity in opinion, and a community for service that will transfigure Canadian life, and make the Canadian nation the leaders in the new internationalism of the world.

For I dipt into the future, far as human eye could see,  
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be;  
Saw the heavens fill with commerce, argosies of magic sails,  
Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with costly bales;  
Heard the heavens fill with shouting, and there rained a ghastly dew  
From the nations' airy navies grappling in the central blue;  
Far along the world-wide whisper of the south-wind rushing warm,  
With the standards of the peoples plunging thro' the thunder-storm;  
Till the war-drum throbb'd no longer, and the battle-flags were furl'd,  
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world.



*SOPHISTRIES OF THE GERMAN MISLEADERS.*

PROFESSOR J. G. HUME.

In every nation there are people who are called on to be leaders—rulers and legislators, jurists, authors, editors, preachers, teachers.

Whenever these men lead their followers astray they become misleaders. The first set of German misleaders of whom I shall speak consists of the many authors, theologians and other thinkers, who published a manifesto shortly after the outbreak of the war, in which the claim was made that the Germans were cultivating peace and goodwill to all mankind and naturally expected their British kinsmen to understand and co-operate in this beneficent endeavour, but when Germany was trying to localize the punishment of a murderer of royalty and was assailed by an incursion of Eastern barbarism the British treacherously seized on this opportunity to attack Germany. These high-minded men deplored the unfortunate war, they foresaw a grave injury to Christianity and the cause of missionary activity. But the Germans were innocent and as they had been beset by enemies who had long plotted this wickedness, there was nothing for them to do but to fight valiantly in self-defence.

A dignified reply was made to this document by some British divines. These, too, asserted their interest in peace, goodwill and the spread of the gospel, but they complained that the German manifesto had misrepresented the British position. They had omitted all mention of Belgium and this was essential for the British point of view; for while Britain strove to avert the war and to secure arbitration, when Germany broke her treaty and invaded Belgium, it was for Britain a plain matter of duty to maintain her treaty obligations and to assist the oppressed Belgians.

The German document is an amazing instance of self-deception on the part of men of such scholarship and reputation as to make it almost beyond belief that it could occur. . . . With their scientific training in getting at the facts one would have expected something better from them.

The British Government issued its white paper which showed by indisputable evidence how earnestly and persistently the British representatives had striven to avert the war, and to secure arbitration, and how the treatment of Belgium brought Britain against the treaty-breaking German Government.

The German Government sent out its white paper, and it became evident where the authors of the manifesto got their misinformation. The German white paper carefully avoids all reference to Belgium, perhaps because the admission of their own chancellor that it was against international law and only to be excused as a military necessity was too recent, or they had not decided on which of the several excuses they afterwards offered was the right one.

But it is worth noticing that where the German paper begins is quite as ingenious and disingenuous as where it stops. It begins with the promises extorted from Serbia in 1909 that they would cease agitation against Austria and it was asserted that they had failed to keep this promise. But the paper carefully omits to mention why they were dissatisfied with Austria. Now just one year before, in 1908, we get the solution of the mystery, though this is never mentioned in the German white paper. In 1908 Austria seized Bosnia and Herzegovina contrary to the treaty of Berlin and retained these provinces in spite of the protests of Serbia and the diplomatic protests of Russia and Britain, and it was Germany who then threatened war if Austria were not allowed to retain these plundered provinces. . . . It was this highhanded action of Austria and Germany in 1908 that sowed the seeds of dissatisfaction that afterwards ripened into hate and war. It is also worth noting that besides being lopped off conveniently at just the right place at the two ends, the paper is padded in the middle with "ex parte" German editorials. Hence the German white paper is a very unreliable historical document.

Nevertheless, in spite of its attempted ingenuity the German white paper itself discloses that it was Austria with the connivance of Germany who began the war. Similarly, though the Germans professed to be threatened by the Russian beginnings of mobilization, still again it was Germany who declared war on Russia. . . . The story that they were attacked was meant for home consumption and to beguile the neutrals. It has been

so often repeated that those who manufactured the falsehood are coming to believe it having heard it so often repeated by themselves.

The same story with slight variations was parroted on this continent by men like Muensterberg and Dernburg. Muensterberg boasts that he brought out the first book on the war. In this book he dwells on the wickedness and barbarism of the Russians, Germany was the bulwark protecting all western nations from the inroads of this vile eastern barbarism. Whereas, the Russians pulled down the noble to the dust, Germany lifted up the fallen and protected the weak. It was just as well that this book was published in a great hurry before the story of how the Germans lifted up the weak and protected the fallen in Belgium became known to the world.

He explains the blindness of the French in attacking their protector by their desire for revenge for the loss of Alsace and Lorraine, and as to the perfidy of Britain in stabbing a friend in the back this was all due to the mercenary desire to overthrow a hated commercial rival.

Dernburg repeats the same story and dwells on the commercial jealousy of Britain in his article on the "Real Cause of the War" in the *Saturday Evening Post*.

In the *Saturday Evening Post* Clemenceau points out that on five different occasions since 1870 Germany has tried to force war on France, and it was this continual bullying that led France to enter into an alliance with Russia. . . .

Arnold Bennett well discusses the real causes of the war and shows the desire of Britain to maintain "Liberty." He does not notice at all the absurd charge about commercial jealousy.

However, the answer is obvious. For every intelligent person knows that the trade and commerce policy of Great Britain was Free Trade and according to this policy the goods of Germany entered into the markets of Great Britain as freely as the goods from Canada or Australia.

The boot is on the other foot. Before the war it was Germany who was displaying signs of jealousy and conducting trade on the principles of warfare. . . .

It is in the memory of all Canadians that when Canada lowered her tax against Britain while the United States recognized

this as not violating the favoured nations clause as it was between two parts of the same nation, Germany tried to bulldoze Canada by putting on a supertax. This led to a retort in kind by Canada imposing a supertax on German goods and soon the "coon came down," though leaving a memory of resentment among Canadians.

Quite recently a new scholar's manifesto has appeared. . .

. . . As you know five hundred representative citizens of the United States calmly state that from the German documents themselves they have the evidence of the perfidy and brutality of Germany.

Professor Muensterberg sometime ago was much disgusted to find how little convinced were the people of the United States by his books. He writes sarcastically to the *Cologne Gazette*.

"Every fool outside of Germany knows that Germany is three hundred years behind other western nations in civilization; that the breaking of a treaty is the greatest crime in the world, and that the Germans in Belgium are acting like vandals."

Though "*writ sarcastic*" it does not seem to be so far from the actual truth. I do not need to reply to the sneer about the crime of breaking treaties, nor the reference to the vandals, but let me indicate without irony or sarcasm where as a matter of fact Germany really is, in some respects at least, behind other nations. Of course we all admit the wonderful advances made by the Germans in science and scholarship, in organization and efficiency in the army and in the industries, yet in spite of all this we may note some matters where the Germans are very distinctly behind in their civilization.

1. The first I would mention is the sanction and encouragement by government, military leaders and social opinion of the practice of duelling. It is a remarkable fact that anyone can verify for himself by an examination of the German white paper that the declaration of war against Russia by Germany was in the form of the duel, a personal affair in which the Kaiser charges his cousin the Czar with breaking his word of honour and says "we take up your defiance."

2. The next matter is the social sanction and encouragement and fearful prevalence of the horrible practice of suicide, spreading like a loathsome disease through the army, among the civilians, and even breaking out among the children. . . . It is sup-



posed to be the proper thing to do in certain circumstances. Their great national hero Frederick the Great it is boasted always carried with him his vial of poison.

3. Then in method of government we find that in Germany the proper relation between the civil and the military power is reversed and the military caste dominates, controls and subjugates the Civil government. This is a reversion to mediaeval feudalism. The whole country is thus enslaved.

4. Lastly, since the war has begun we have seen nearly the whole nation revert to savagery. The military leaders casting aside all or nearly all the usages, conventions and restraints on cruelty. The civil power tearing up treaties, the poets writing hymns of hate. Most deplorable of all has been the depth of degradation to which the army has sunk, in its manner of conducting war, especially in its methods of attack on non-combatants and neutrals and its treatment of peoples in occupied territory.

It has come to the world as a terrible shock, as an unbelievable tragedy, just because we have all known about the advances in science and scholarship and it was natural to suppose that a corresponding advance would be taking place in ethical enlightenment and moral behaviour.

Furthermore, about one hundred years ago Germany could boast of writers and thinkers who gave utterance to some of the noblest aspirations of the human spirit, leaders who were then appreciated in Germany and honoured by the whole world.

Consider a few instances. . . . One of the greatest among philosophers, Immanuel Kant in his ethical writings gave a strong and convincing exposition of that great central Christian principle of the infinite worth of the human soul. In this being in line with Luther's exposition of Christian doctrine.

No moral rule of conduct, said Kant, can be allowed to be twisted into an exception to suit our own conveniences. No moral principle can be subordinated to mere expediency. Each person should treat every other person with respect, reverencing personality wherever found, never making a mere convenience or tool of another person. A nation should be a community of mutually respecting moral freemen who are self-respecting and giving moral obedience and allegiance to the one and only supreme sovereign in moral matters, God alone. Kant.

also wrote a treatise on the principles of an "abiding peace" foreshadowing the Hague tribunal.

Hegel wrote on the claims of the community on the individual, but he, too, maintained that no community could set aside or ignore the binding laws of morality, the supreme demands of religion.

Goethe wrote with enthusiasm of the brotherhood of man.

Schiller in his "William Tell" glorified the struggles for freedom of the Swiss people against the tyranny of Austria.

Then, too, the fiery orator, Fichte, demanded for Germany a "place in the sun," but it was not a place of aggression. He wished the German nation to dedicate its energies to the preservation of freedom, not to the seeking of domination. At that time Germany was a roadway rather than a nation just exactly in the position of Belgium of to-day overrun by the armies of the great war lord, Napoleon, and when they then called to Britain to help them and save them from political extinction Britain's answer was Waterloo. Again the call comes to Britain from a little nation in danger of extinction, and Britain with her brave ally, the French, now leading in this crusade against the tyrant, answered at the Mons and the Marne, and younger Britain, Canada, answered at Langemarck and St. Julien.

Now, however, though Britain is unchanged, the role between France and Germany has become reversed. Then France was following the tyrant, now it is Germany who has become the tyrant and bully.

What has happened to Germany in this one hundred years? One is very apt to put the blame on the writers, authors and thinkers and some of these have been much to blame, but I think if you look closely you will find the source of the downfall of Germany from its high idealism to its crass brutality in the fact that a group of political plotters secured the leadership of a remarkably able but quite unprincipled man, an Oliver Cromwell in ability and force of character but fighting not for the people but for the monarchy. . . . This one man who did so much for the seeming success but real downfall of Germany who fattened its body and atrophied its soul was the mighty and unprincipled Bismarck. His cynical policy of "blood and iron" was nothing more or less than Machiavellian immoralism, any

means to be used to gain the end, the unification of Germany. This creed of *anything to win* became a national motto, a national policy. The proper federation of Germany was a task for a statesman, but Bismarck by his methods took a short cut to unification that seemed very clever and successful but carried with it the seeds of ruin and decay. His simple plan was to organize the federated Germany on the model of an army. The Kaiser supreme over Prussia, with the army to secure complete obedience, absolutely in his control, and its support not to be tampered with by any vote of supplies as in the British system. Then the federation was so arranged that Prussia had absolute control of the other divisions, and then there was a lower house to talk and to have an appearance of freedom, a shadow without the substance.

The military caste soon entered into this heritage. The king for whom Bismarck had plotted and worked and schemed and made supreme kicked out old Bismarck. The military caste around the Kaiser soon had full control not only of all legislation but of all industry.

They took over and assumed government ownership and control of all railways and several other large industries. This led to much wealth and an army of obsequious civil servants whose great delight was in posting up "Streng Verboten," strictly forbidden." The wealth from the indemnities paid by the French for their defeat in 1870 also helped to bring in a period of great prosperity. . . . Then the Government or military caste took good care of the newspapers and the schools. Criticism of government policy could be suppressed as "lesé majeste" or high treason against the Kaiser.

In education there was much drill towards efficiency, but in morality the two great virtues that were instilled were *industry and obedience*.

The only protesting group were the social democrats. . . . Many people do not seem to understand what the Socialist had to complain about from the standpoint of socialism, with government railways, etc.

These people never stop to reflect that there is a tremendous difference between *government control* and *control of government*. The social democrats have vainly sought to get some control of the government.



The Church should have sympathized with the social democrats. It allied itself with the government, and its great message to the people was also *work and obey*.

I am convinced that the root and cause of the moral downfall and spiritual decline of Germany is to be traced to its evil form of bureaucratic political organization permeated and directed by the evil creed "anything to win, or might is right."

The commercial prosperity simply led to greater and greater arrogance and the political misleaders began to become intoxicated with the exuberance of their own success, they were dreaming of "domination or downfall," and always wondering at their own moderation. . . .

Now, there were not wanting men of thought and insight and ability in literature and science, but the people were not allowed to participate in real political discussion or share in real political responsibility. . . .

There arose shallow cults that appealed to shallow minds and led away the populace like our Western cult of Christian Science or of quack medicine. Out of the swelter of materialistic or pantheistic tendencies there were some cheap and nasty brands that had a large circulation and bad pre-eminence.

Schopenhauer's vague, pantheistic blind will in all or beneath all things was comparatively innocuous until a new version gave it a new turn. The possibilities of power to anyone who tapped the infinite resources of this infinite will appealed to Nietzsche something on a par with the Christian Science cult, only in the case of Nietzsche you did not get the power by believing you had it, but by resolute endeavour and self assertion. This doctrine of effort would be better than Christian Science only it had no moral standard and taught ruthless *beating down of all opposition*. This, however, did not reach its full malignity till it was transmuted into the cult not of the "superman" but of the "supernation," by Treitschke. This amalgamated well with the original Bismarck policy of "blood and iron," and it thought it could find scientific corroboration of its validity in the popular version of a modified and mutilated Darwinism of a survival of the *strongest*.

On the whole, it was not so much the scientists and philosophers or thinkers of power and distinction who led Germany



astray. It was a mediocre set of peddling political schemers and cunning plotters who succeeded in getting control of power.

The people debauched by the suppression of political discussion were easily led to give some credence to those shallow writers I have mentioned. The Church which should have led the people, allied itself with the Aristocratic clique in its dread of the irreligious "social democrats." . . . .

While all this degradation was taking place in the national character its great scientists and philosophers and scholars were contributing learned articles for scientific journals and international magazines and sending forth highly learned discussions, but at home their own people were suffering from moral and spiritual starvation.

*No esoteric learning can save a nation's soul.*

The lesson for us is obvious. . . . . In politics eternal vigilance is the price of liberty. A responsible share in the moulding of legislation is a form of moral training and moral discipline that is essential for the well being and moral development of the citizens of every country.

A people that has its political thinking done for it by some committee of alleged experts, who have their duties dictated to them, who do not share in the stress and strain of decision in matters of vital moment to all is soon politically, then morally and spiritually pauperized.

It is the duty of the teacher in the little school house, the preacher in the little church to quicken the conscience, to lead people to think, to reflect, to adopt wise measures, to be deeply interested in the well-being of the *whole country* and in efforts to make the *whole world* nobler and better.

No mere sentimental enthusiasm for "my country right or wrong" or "my party right or wrong" can ever take the place of moral and religious principles, above all party politics. . . . The future of our country depends indeed on our leaders leading, but do not forget that the most potent leaders are those who have the opportunity and privilege and responsibility of leading the *young*. To our teachers in public schools, in high schools, in colleges, we look for guidance and inspiration, but especially for the ability to lead the pupil to independent power of moral resolution and devotion to moral ideals, assisting the

undeveloped to become self-reliant, not in an arrogant sense but because of sober conviction based on a conscience sensitive to the claims of true morality, and the Christian principles of *truth* and *righteousness* and *goodness*. In the present conflict we must all be ready to make sacrifices to ensure that the cause of justice and right may prevail, that the wicked assault on the very foundations of justice and liberty may be withstood, and a righteous and abiding peace at length secured with guarantees against the recurrence of such an outbreak of wickedness as the world has never before witnessed.

While for the time being we must with force and might oppose the mad outbreak of German, Austrian, Turkish brutality that liberty may not perish from the earth, we must ever be mindful that besides defending the civilization we now have we must work mightily to keep our civilization pure, noble, worthy and progressive.

Long may the Britons of the motherland and those in the dominions overseas be able to say:

"When Britain sails the outer seas  
Patrol of endless coast,  
Her honour is her majesty,  
Her duty is her boast.  
No people 'neath the tyrant's heel  
Shall call to her in vain,  
Guardian of Freedom hath she been  
And so she shall remain,  
Loyal to Honour, Right and Truth,  
Long may she so remain."

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*SECRETARY'S REPORT.*

CHAS. G. FRASER, PRINCIPAL, MANNING AVENUE SCHOOL,  
TORONTO.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—Allow me to thank you for the honour conferred upon me by re-electing me as secretary of your Section, on a year on which you knew that very much outside work would fall upon me. Holding at once, as I do, the two highest honours that the teachers of Ontario can confer upon a fellow teacher—the Presidency of the Toronto Teachers' Institute with a membership of over fourteen hundred teachers, and the Presidency of the Ontario Educational Association, which is the educational parliament of the Province—you will perhaps be a little lenient with me if I do not happen to have all my work in as good shape as I should have. Having a place on over forty committees on many of which I have been either the chairman or the secretary, called for a very strenuous time; and I am thankful indeed that I have been blessed with good health through this year of heavy strain. To show the extent of the correspondence of the year I may say that in my study I have eighty-four letter files, all in use with this year's correspondence and papers.

The year just drawing to a close has been one of very great activity in our Section. The closing up of the work of our last meeting, the preparation of the minutes, the securing of the papers for publication, and the issuing of the resolutions of our department claimed first attention. This was interspersed, by way of variety, with the organization of our campaign in connection with Superannuation.

It has indeed been a pleasure to me to work with my new master. Last year, Miss Abram set a pace for Presidents of the Public School Section which needed some class to follow; but in our new president, Mr. Underhill, we have found one who has been able to keep the pace. The correspondence I have from him bears record of the great interest he has taken in your affairs: and the programme which you have before you, which is almost entirely his planning, bears testimony to his efficiency.

For many years now, it has been my privilege to break in each vice-president for the honour that he may expect the coming year; and when he is elected to the presidency of your important Section, I have offered my fealty to the new sovereign. I impress upon him that this is his year and he must give his personality to its meetings. I have assured him that whatever he desires, I will endeavour to find means to secure. It is said that my ancestors were adepts in bringing in the finest cattle to be found within a radius of a hundred miles; and that they always brought in whatever they went for. In fact, it has been hinted that that characteristic of the Scot who never asks the Lord for anything but merely asks to show him where it is, originated with our clan. This is a characteristic which has been ably followed by the other clans. I think I have been able to secure for President Underhill almost everything he asked for, and you will agree with me he was not easy to please. We have before us, I think, the best programme ever placed before a Section of the O.E.A.; and I hope that nothing will happen to mar the pleasure and the profit of our gathering.

In the performance of my work, this year, I have had numerous personal interviews with the Minister of Education, the Acting Minister, the Deputy Minister, and the Superintendent of Education, as well as with the Prime Minister and other members of the Cabinet. As your representative, I have been a member of the numerous deputations which have waited upon the educational authorities, urging various considerations, and I trust that my action will have met the approval of my fellow teachers. Where I may have erred, it has been a case of poor judgment, for I have striven to guard your interests as faithfully as if they were my own.

I think the policy of this department in retaining its secretary and its treasurer through the years, is a wise one. Experience produces a skill which enables the person to do more work, with less effort, than a new secretary or treasurer could. There comes to them a knowledge of conditions which is very valuable in carrying on the work. As the years pass around, the correspondence assumes a personal character and when information is required or advice needed, it is known where it can be obtained.



This has been the first year under our new constitution and we are testing its efficiency. We do not know yet whether we like it or not. There are some points in the constitution which were omitted, contrary to our advice, and I am not alone in thinking that these amendments will yet have to be provided for. The biggest problem before us during this past year was the question of Superannuation, the discussion of which I shall leave to Mr. Reid, the chairman of our Superannuation Committee who will be presenting a special report on that subject.

Again thanking you for your continued confidence, I am,

Yours very sincerely,

CHAS. G. FRASER.

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*RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL  
SECTION.*

PASSED APRIL 25, 26 AND 27, 1916.

RESOLUTIONS.

I. *Expression of Appreciation.*

1. That we again express our appreciation of the concessions granted to us and of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education, Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, K.C., Acting Minister of Education, the worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Seath, and the other officials of the Department of Education, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our section.

II. *The Public School Curriculum.*

2. That the report of the committee on Supplementary Reading for each of the classes of our Public Schools be adopted, and the committee be requested to continue its work and make a further report when it has sufficient material therefor; and that the Minister be asked to publish this report as a special bulletin.

III. *Public School Text-books.*

3. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization or revision of a text-book on any subject, he should give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those who wish may submit a book in typewritten form if necessary; and that Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School Text-books.

4. That two committees be appointed (one for each book) (1) to arrange the table of contents of each of the Third and Fourth Readers into two well-graded groups of lessons suitable for the junior and senior class in each book; to prepare (2) an index of the titles of the lessons; (3) an index of the authors; and (4) a pronouncing vocabulary of the proper names.

5. That we disapprove of the inclusion in our readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English; and that a committee be appointed to make a list of the objectionable expressions and lessons to present to the Department.

6. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer may be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

7. That our Geographies be supplied with more and better maps.

8. That the Geography text should be of a convenient size so that pupils could read it with convenience—a companion atlas being supplied for map reference.

#### IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

9. That there be a local board of examiners for each inspectorate, to direct the work of the examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work.

10. That the papers should be marked only by teachers who are actually engaged in teaching Entrance work. In large cities the number of examiners could be proportionately increased.

#### V. *Teachers' Certificates.*

11. That we request the Minister of Education to make such changes in the present requirements of public school inspectors' certificates as will make it possible for public school teachers to qualify—the essential qualification being *successful public school experience and capability* rather than academic standing.

12. That the requirements for a public school inspectors' certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a first-class professional certificate of qualification or a degree in arts granted by a recognized Canadian university;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in public schools, covering all grades of public school work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled, and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a degree in pedagogy in any recognized Canadian university.

13. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the public schools of this Province were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the provincial university, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

#### VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

14. That the Department of Education be requested to make the School Year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance, etc., made out accordingly.

15. That in the opinion of the Public School Department of the O.E.A. the present method of listing as "*the school population*" all persons of the ages 5-21 (inclusive) serves no good purpose, and has proved grossly misleading to ourselves and to our sister provinces; it should therefore be dropped and for these figures should be substituted the number of persons of the ages 6-16 (inclusive) and the number of children of compulsory attendance age, i.e., 8-14 (inclusive).

16. That the method of listing the actual number of pupils registered during the year, charging to the school as full year pupils all Entrance class pupils, all young pupils entered in April and September, all pupils admitted from other schools and all pupils removed to other schools during the year has proved very misleading; and the Department of Education should require instead the average monthly registration and the percentage of attendance based on the same.

17. That the purpose of teachers' institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods, but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

18. That we endorse the preparation and use throughout the Province of a Monthly Report Card and also a Continuous Record Card for each pupil.

19. That Report and Record Cards similar to those submitted be printed and distributed throughout the Province and teachers be urged to give them a trial.



20. That as our present Daily Registers are not suitable as books of original entry for such records, suggestions be made to the Department of Education regarding a proper form for such entries.

### VIII. *Superannuation of Teachers.*

21. That we express our appreciation of the work of the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.A., LL.D., Minister of Education, and those associated with him in preparing and presenting a Bill for the Superannuation of Teachers and Inspectors. That we approve of its general features and promise him and them our hearty support in securing its enactment.

22. That this Section of the O.E.A. expresses its appreciation of the cordial support of the principle of superannuation and of the Bill of 1915, by so many of the young teachers of the Province; and it also expresses the hope that the amended Bill which offers so much earlier benefits and other advantageous features, with but a very small increase in the contributions, will receive even stronger support from all teachers, as a measure fair to the profession and fair to the Province—a measure that has for its object the benefit of our educational system as well as the benefit of the teaching profession.

### IX. *An Ontario Educational Gazette.*

22. That we recommend to the consideration of the Honourable the Minister of Education the publication of an Educational Gazette, to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all departmental regulations, instructions and reports, and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

### X. *General.*

23. That this Association continues to urge very strongly its disapproval of (1) melodramatic and comic picture shows; (2) the manufacture and sale of cigarettes; (3) the comic supplements that are appearing in some of our Canadian papers.

XI. *Contributions from the Institutes.*

24. We thank the local institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this department of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope *each institute* will, this year, contribute to this fund. Some institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in *every* institute; begin now by sending \$5 or more to the Secretary of the P. S. Department of the O.E.A.

The work and aims of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association and of the local teachers' institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each in its own sphere—the Municipality, the County or the Province—is endeavouring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and, by all legitimate means, to improve the conditions under which they labour; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central association and the local institutes.

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## KINDERGARTEN SECTION

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### PERMANENT VALUES IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

MISS MARY ADAIR, PHILADELPHIA.

If it is true that character building is the supreme end of living, toward which end education is but a means, the test of an educational system is not in mere *cultural* opportunities, but in the development of ability to square everyday activities to eternal measurements—it is not how much one knows but what one *is* that counts—activities may be ephemeral, but standards are lasting.

Fröbel's experiment was an attempt to create a system of education based upon universal principles and place it upon the only solid platform yet discovered—the truth of child nature. Upon the threshold of the discovery of the Science of Evolution, Fröbel perceived in it the form which corroborated *Nature*—*The individual*—*Human institutions*—and *The school* and it showed remarkable insight on his part to perceive coherence in the law of the universe, and in the constitution of the human mind.

This was Fröbel's *gift* to education, and it is to be deplored that the foolish disputing of Kindergartners over those lesser "gifts," balls, blocks, etc., has obscured even to educators the value of the real gift. When he said in substance of the test of education, "Dimly at first, but clearly by and by, the child will see how earth, air, sky, plants, beasts, and men are woven into one great *whole* interdependent while the ages roll," it showed his view of education as evolutionary. Finding process, organization and continuity as primal factors in nature, he saw that education could only be consistent by following the same rules. To think education was to think in terms of universal law, revealing itself in constantly enlarging forms of *wholeness* paralleled by ever advancing stages of culture in child or race.

Such a view is hard to think, people are not trained to look for corroboration in cause and effect, they have been trained for ages to regard what somebody *says*, rather than what nature *does*, and it is still impossible to "put new wine into old bottles." Nothing would serve educational spirit so well to-day as to stop for a time all theorising and study pedagogy from The Master, in the parables of the New Testament. Although two thousand years of effort have passed since Jesus Christ voiced his educational ideals, the methods of the schools, even the universities, are still to accept as "well done" the return of the talent undeveloped and in a napkin. Teachers still fail to realize that the great test is to be able to translate circumstance into opportunity, here and there a poet catches the idea.

"This I beheld, or dreamed it in a dream,  
There spread a cloud of dust along a plain  
And underneath the cloud, or in it raged  
A furious battle, and men yelled, and swords  
Shocked upon swords, and shields.

A Prince's banner

Wavered, then staggered backward, hemmed by foes.  
A craven hung along the battle's edge  
And thought, 'Had I a sword of keener steel,  
That blue blade that the King's son bears;'

But this blunt thing.

He snapt and flung it, from his hand,  
And lowering crept away and left the field.  
Then came the King's son, wounded, sore bestead  
And weaponless, and saw the broken sword  
Hilt buried in the dry and trodden sand,  
And ran and snatched it, and with battle shout  
Lifted afresh, he hewed his enemy down,  
And saved a great cause that heroic day."

Re-stating the point it is clear that the chief duty of the school is to furnish the occasion—the circumstance—the test of the child or youth being his power to find in it opportunity. But, circumstance will fail to inspire if the occasion has little or no attachment to *life*, and it should be evident that school methods or systems, which are totally detached from a motivation which can only arise out of living problems, are completely out of touch with modern educational ideals. The situation is not hopeless, even at its worst, for after all it is only the falsity of



method that detaches, for the forms of the school are naturally forms of life, if viewed aright. Society demands that every one shall read, write, measure and sum, draw, understand nature, feel poetry, enjoy music, appreciate fine pictures, use tools and make useful things, and live happily with his neighbour.

In Mr. McMurry's report of observations in New York schools two years ago, he claimed that the Kindergarten was at that time the only part of the ordinary public school, in which natural motivation attaching to real *life* interests might be observed. It is encouraging to note here that since then the Continuation School idea has made progress, and it is probably to-day the most effective presentation of a really co-operative social scheme of education, since Fröbel launched his ideals of interdependence. The Continuation School is an effort to save children from the dead-end road, the blind alley, by helping them to correlate school processes, vocational enterprises, and outside interests—phases of life too widely separated in individual responsibility tend to disintegrate moral fibre—valuable time, too, is lost, and little gained where the margin of life is out of proportion to the working-page. The view is taken that every production has its art side and, by providing opportunity for art study, side by side with industry and studies of civics, it is hoped to raise the percentage of those who are doing creative work and lower the average of the merely mechanical, thus eventually increasing national capacity.

In encouraging the Kindergartners to persevere in their good work I have tried to re-emphasize the value to the whole educational process of those permanent values of the Kindergarten.

*Wholeness* as a principle, and a demand for intelligent correlation, is as important for growth at twelve years of age as at five. To find in each grade of the school a true mirror of an ideal social world should help the child, as he advances, to realize somewhat the meaning of his own civilization, and the responsibility of the individual to the community.

The Kindergartners who have been working along these lines for many years, have a glorious opportunity to "make good," just now, because of a sort of searchlight spotting, for pedagogic and economic reasons, along the whole line of elementary education. To grasp this opportunity means tremendously for educa-

tion as a whole and incidentally for the Kindergarten. To obscure progress by a narrow particularity or antagonism to co-operation with the other grades is unthinkable—treasonable to Kindergarten principles and less than even worldly wise. If such bigotry exists anywhere it is due to unscientific training. The function of science is to test, to experiment, to use X-rays. Teachers trained through scientific methods have learned that they must be hospitable toward experiment, “proving all things and holding fast that which is good.” As I see it, this is not a time for fussing over petty details, but a time for getting together on the larger issues, keeping ever in view the vision of the child’s whole educational opportunity and always remembering that the Kindergarten is near the beginning. The vision is the great thing, “Where there is no vision the people perish.” Look again in memory at “The Transfiguration,” Raphael’s picture, the three great leaders of all the centuries are looking toward the vision—the three disciples on the highest plane get the vision reflected—on the lower plane the rest of the disciples see no vision and dispute among themselves, lost in the concensus of the moment. The diversity of interest represented here is the story of all great movements and to forcibly point this moral it is plain that if we Kindergartners do not “hang together” we will presently “hang separately,” but that fate is inconceivable with such a vision and such a faith as ours.

Without further discussion it must be evident that a practical system of elementary education is impossible until Kindergartners and Elementary Grade teachers shall have the same training, sufficient training, too, for the enterprises they undertake. The present term is too short.

We shall not have an efficient system until we are prepared to allow education to be, to a greater extent than at present, an individually elective process.

We shall not have it until we rise together to a new estimate of values.

It is up to the leaders—leaders in the country at large and in the local centres, leaders who can manage a campaign and carry on an intelligent propaganda, leaders who can furnish in print more explicit presentation of problems.

In conclusion, I would reiterate the belief that perfect correlation and evolution of the activities of the Kindergarten and the later school forms must be found in a system which, through coherence in the larger issues, serves permanent purpose in the detail, also, that every point of detail must mirror the permanent and essential forms of our most ideal conception of civilization.

Only by such ideals and methods can we hope to translate pedagogical practice into a means through which a child may form the habit of rising, through mere circumstance, into glorious opportunity.

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## THE RELATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE GRADE.

MISS MARY ADAIR, PHILADELPHIA NORMAL SCHOOL.

"The great object of education is to inoculate the children with the ideas and ideals of our civilization."

We know to-day that much of the time spent in the laborious slavery of the 3 R's, in the mastering of the A B C's of number and reading, was wasted time, to develop skill in counting and saying A B C's both forward and backward even though it meant trouble of spirit and weariness of flesh, was counted for righteousness as though one should know everything about a ladder, except to use it in climbing. Fortunately for the children we are beginning to realize that while these forms are a *means* of culture, they are not in themselves culture, but simply tools or instrumentalities, and that if there was a sufficient imperative children could learn to read, just as they learned to walk and talk, using much natural effort and the stimulus of interest in environment and the impulse to conquer, which still survives in most of us if given a chance. Street cars are full of stories, fences and sheds are blazing information, and to correspond with opportunity the newer methods in learning to read, write, and measure, use the stimulus of environment and the primitive method of association of ideas.

As I understand the meaning of this conference and the signs of the times, the best that I can bring to Kindergarten and Primary teachers is to suggest, first of all, a more conscious hospitality toward *experiment* and a realization of the value of *public demonstration*—getting out into the open for mutual discussion of problems. More hot-hearted enthusiasm would help us all, with a balance of cool-headed deliberation. Some plunging and path-breaking would result with the necessity here and there for compromise—a new estimate of values where questions of lesser importance must give way to the greater where the best good of the whole is under consideration. Of all things to remember that the child is greater than any system and that while "all things are lawful, all things are not expedient."



Every system of education is being tried by ordeal, in this frightful war, at the court of civilization, and we are blind and stupid if we do not profit by the trial and the ordeal, and in this time the only excuse for such a gathering as this, is to take account of educational stock, so to speak, scan profit and loss and make out a new balance sheet with a new statement of what is to the good.

No such conference as this was necessary in ancient China—successors of the great Confucius had an easy job, simply to hand on the classics from one generation to the next, to be handed back intact, when examination was called. Because educational history shows a movement, through Formalism, Idealism, Realism and shadows the grave danger of Materialism, *we* have a chance to learn by the failures or successes of the past.

Young Canada finds its antipodes educationally in ancient China—with the lusty voice of a young giant Canada protests against any inflexible system and against any mere copy of traditional educational procedure.

As with all nations and peoples, the most sacred possession of Canada is her children—and the place she will hold in the sun of to-morrow is determined by the ideals of life and the measure of efficiency gained by the children of to-day, by means of our educational system, or *in spite of it*. If we are to win our place in spite of our educational system, then, an absurd and gigantic economic waste lies at some door. The public has a right to expect 100 per cent. of efficiency as an asset for the future for every dollar invested in education.

The problem of Canada in 1916 throws its pointer sharply toward the future, a future so potentially great that it is even undreamed of as yet, consequently too mystical for ordinary specifications. Its very boundaries are suggestive—on the north by the aurora borealis, on the east by the Atlantic and mother lands, on the west by the Pacific and its pathway to ancient civilizations, and on the south by another experiment in nationalism. Therefore, in planning for to-day and looking out for to-morrow a distinct margin must be understood.

I stated above that *education* could neither be handed down in fixed tradition, nor handed out in marble and stone, and authorized text-books, it must be of the type of Cinderella's slipper,

and just as Cinderella was different from her sisters and all other maidens, the slipper was of her size and quality, fitted to her age, and to her alone. So the plan of education for Canadian children must be of the size and quality of Canada—unique, peculiar—made in Canada out of Canada's elastic possibilities.

While there is little or no difference physically between a Chinese baby and a Canadian baby there is all the difference in the religious, social and political atmosphere to which even very young children instinctively react, an environment of race, and the extraordinary susceptibility of little children in an extraordinary environment, must be considered. There is an Anglo-Saxon type, and also the Canadian pattern of that Anglo-Saxon type and there must be evolved a form of education which will represent the corollary of the Canadian pattern of the Anglo-Saxon. Such form of education as will consider the splendid potentialities of the type without limiting its inherent claim to freedom and to *variation*. I wish to stress *variation* as the record shown by those beings which develop by their own self-determination and initiative. Canada is a new experiment nationally, and as such demands a wide range for experiment in education. At this critical stage in Canadian history we cannot think of the most elementary education, even that "of the mother's knee," without considering its national significance.

This was strikingly evident to any who had the privilege of seeing the *Canadian exhibit* at the recent World's Fair in San Francisco. It is not too much to say that it was the most popular of all exhibits, largely because it was so coherent in its national expression, presenting its potential aspects in such distinct contrast to the national features of older civilizations, Italy, France, Belgium, etc. The Canadian exhibit cannot be described in words, but if it could be exhibited in populous centres throughout Canada it would do more to enlighten educators as to what is vital in Twentieth Century education than one thousand addresses at conventions.

Perhaps some will say that I over-emphasize the *national* significance of education and that the ideal way is to help a child to develop into a good man or woman and that good citizenship will follow. This is all true and has been pretty largely the

ideal of the past, but it is also true that there are periods in the lives of individuals and of nations, when certain intensive and individual processes are necessary and if the individual or the nation does not make good at nature's own time along these lines the whole understructure is weakened.

I have gone all around Robin Hood's barn to reiterate the idea that as Canada is creating a unique form of civilization it must be corroborated in her general scheme of education.

I am here in this connection to call attention to the *Kindergarten* as an endeavour to demonstrate a system based upon nature's laws of growth and nature's ideals of efficiency. The Kindergarten ideal, I dare not say practice, as yet, for I know that the Kindergarten can be as narrow and hidebound and materialistic as any other misunderstood form of idealism, as misapplied as religion itself. I am speaking then, of the Kindergarten ideal, *Kindergarten* where a child is like a plant which has, because of a garden and a gardener, a better chance to develop all of its capabilities than it could if it had to take its chances in the open. It is surely manifest that this ideal should not be peculiar to the Kindergarten or to Kindergarten age, but ought to be imperative for the whole of school life, although the word *Kindergarten* has by usage come to apply to a particular grade, and a brief two years of child life. This limiting of a great educational prophecy is to be deplored and for this discussion at least I propose to use the term in the light of an educational viewpoint, rather than a grade, and considered as a viewpoint it is just as necessary a viewpoint for the first, second, or any grade as for the Kindergarten.

1. It represents an atmosphere conducive to physical, mental and spiritual growth.

2. Regard for the individual.

3. Encouragement for the development of capacity through creative activities.

4. The impulse really to live and to do live things.

5. *Ideas* developed through *play*, *nature*, *handwork*, *story*, and *conversation*, *song* and *music* and *art* opportunities, and all in the natural homelike way of a child's real life.

In many of the special classes for retarded children, the Kindergarten method is being used, the nailed down individual

desk pens, have given way to tables or adjustable desks. An evolutionary scheme of handwork is taking the place of former spasmodic and unrelated efforts. Language, number and drawing are being correlated to the story, gardening, excursion and play and work activities. This movement to a more natural method is not in the special classes only but all through the more progressive schools. It is increasingly evident that the democratic ideals of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness may soon become habitual even in the sacred precincts of a school-room. It is up to the teachers, if we could look at these great problems in the light of world affairs and of national significance, we might forget to look so often at the clock, or to wish for pay day. If one's work never rises to a passion it might be better for the children and for the nation if some of us were doing something else. The school will never be the strength it should be to the community or to the nation until it plants itself firmly upon fundamentals and carries these consistently and coherently through the entire school process from Kindergarten to University--fundamentals, both in subjects of education and in methods.

Perhaps there is no feature in school management to-day that shows the trend of modern thought better than the changes now being introduced in *grading*. The old logical method is being superseded by the psychological method. There is really no longer a shadow of excuse for chronological promotion. The introduction of special classes, continuation classes, elective courses with recommendations from vocational guidance experts, half-yearly or at propitious seasons for promotion, etc. The school is gradually freeing itself from the factory method in management and from cold storage information in subject matter.

With infinite possibilities before us let us look up from our "muckraking" to the crown hanging over our heads and remember that the destiny of a nation and a people is in the balance.

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*A SYNOPSIS OF AN OUTLOOK ON WOMAN'S WORK.*

MRS. A. M. HUESTIS, TORONTO.

There was a time not far in the past when we charitably disposed people contented our souls by doing the will of the Rector, carrying our glass of jelly to the poor. Then we wakened and began inquiring as to why the poor needed the jelly, and then we realized that inefficiency was at the bottom of it. And what caused, or contributed to this condition. When we reached this stage, then we began the modern social service work and a study of home hygiene, community hygiene, school hygiene, and factory hygiene. We realized that a slum, no matter where it existed, cast its menace into all society, so more sanitary methods came into being, and laws long lain without enforcement were put into working order, and, to quite an extent, slum conditions were rectified, although in all Canadian cities much still remains to be done. From the home came a survey of recreation hours and when and where the entire family had or ought to have space in which to spend these hours. This took the social workers into schools, parks and squares and resulted in an enlargement of most of the facilities provided for recreation. Following the family units into the daily occupation came in short order. Factory inspection, not only for the age limits in the workers, but a step past as to the sanitary conditions of the factory, air space, light, safety of occupation, eliminating things dangerous to the health and safety also. Then the "war year" overtook us, and all nations had perforce to rearrange their ideas, and many phases of work prior to this year which were accepted as man's work, came to be known as woman's work. And where it was considered—at least not fashionable—perhaps undesirable for women to work, our women followed home industries in the factories, where they were placed by man, when man saw a profit could be made from home products; candle-making, weaving, soap-making, jams, pickles, etc., and now no one questions woman in industry and the noble professions of teaching and nursing are regarded as vocations. So war work has come, too, being accepted rather than questioned as

to its fitness for women. Now women work by thousands at munition making, clean Liverpool's streets, as they have never been cleaned before, run cars, despatch trains, drive motors, nurse the wounded and rescue them from heavy fire, pack and ship Red Cross supplies, raise money by all manner of means for war relief, and travel the world over to raise funds for Belgium, France, Poland and Serbia, and we see that women has a field of activity beyond her own doors, and seeing, accept. And the call has come now, for women to aid recruiting and, if Canada can now raise her allotted numbers and secure 200,000 more men than she now has under arms, this field for women's activities is large. Women are sought as platform speakers on recruiting and one woman has secured no less than sixty-five recruits at one meeting. Registration of women to release men for service is another form of usefulness, and is working slowly but surely, and is resulting in women being employed in banks, as never before, and has opened classes for women in gardening, flower growing, agriculture, bee-raising, etc., and has proved the adaptibility of this sex to do whatever is necessary to win this world war.

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*THE LITTLE CHILD AND THE MORAL ORDER.*

PROFESSOR F. TRACY, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

A few months ago it was my privilege to give an address before the Toronto Association of Kindergarten Teachers, and my subject on that occasion was "The Principle of Self-Realization." After dwelling on the meaning and importance of that great principle, and the part which it has played in shaping educational progress in ancient and in modern times, I proceeded to the discussion of two corollaries, which, it seemed to me, are involved in it, and directly deducible from it. The first of these corollaries was this, that self-realization means the development of power, control, sovereignty, on the part of the individual; that the human being was intended by his Creator to have dominion, not only over the beasts of the field, the fowls of the air, and the fish of the sea, not only over all the forces and resources of nature, but also, and chiefly, over those subtler forces that play their part within the recesses of his own being, over his own passions, desires, loves, hates, ambitions and antipathies, keeping them in subjection and subordination to the ideals of the spirit, and making them contribute their proper dynamic to the realization of the great central purpose of life. And the second corollary was this, that self-realization, as so defined, must be interpreted in the light of ethical principles, and directed along ethical lines; for otherwise we shall have power without responsibility, force without spirituality, "culture" without conscience, the most hideous, brutal, and stupid thing that this world has ever looked upon.

It will be obvious, from a glance at the topic before us to-day, that this address must have important points of contact with that other. For they both have to do with the education of the child, and they both consider education in its ethical bearings. I shall not, however, traverse the same ground again, but shall call your attention to some aspects of the actual process by which the individual comes into possession of this moral inheritance. In other words, I would like to tell the simple story of how the average, normal child, living under average, normal conditions,

with a fairly wholesome environment, comes into the possession of moral ideas, and develops in himself a genuinely moral character.

Let me begin with the conception of order as such, and remind you of the familiar fact, that each of us is born into a world which is on the whole an orderly realm; a world which, in spite of its immense and bewildering variety, is nevertheless a genuine unity, and is postulated as such. This world, into which we are born, and in which we live our life, is made up, as Lotze put it, of things that are, events that happen, and relations that subsist. And the things that are, can be grouped, classified, arranged under concepts or general ideas, and taken up into apperception centres. The events that happen do not happen at random, but in accordance with necessary laws and fixed conditions. And the relations that subsist are not fluctuating and unreliable, but consistent and predictable. Two and two make four, not sometimes but always, not in some localities but everywhere, not in reference to some things but in reference to all things whatsoever, whether you are speaking of sugar plums, or cities, or solar systems. In short, the world in which we live is not a chaos, but a cosmos.

Among the many aspects of this orderly realm, there are some that stand out with special prominence, and seem to have a significance that is particularly far-reaching. Take, for example, those quantitative relations that are dealt with by the mathematical sciences, the relations of space and number. That two and two make four, that things equal to the same thing are equal to one another, that two straight lines cannot enclose a space, these propositions seem to belong to the very core and heart of material reality. And there is something almost comforting in the thought of their fixity and reliability. They are among the things that cannot be shaken.

Or take the principle of causality. Among our fundamental notions there is none more fundamental; among our cherished convictions there is none more unshakable than this, that no change takes place without a cause. This principle of causality is so closely connected with the development of my topic, that I wish to follow it up a little further.



From the beginning of his life the child has daily experience of the regularity and reliability of the causal relation. He finds that when certain things happen other things also happen. And the regularity of this sequence very soon impresses itself upon his mind. Where there is fire, there is heat; when food is partaken of, hunger is satisfied; when the sun comes up, there is light and warmth; and when he goes down, there is darkness and cold. And so with countless other causal uniformities, which are as strands in the great cable of the world's uniformity on the whole. But the fact I wish particularly to emphasize is this, that he very soon discovers *himself* as a real and effective cause, among the other causes that operate in the world. He is able to produce effects. The little babe, who happens to get his hands upon an old newspaper, and proceeds to pull it to pieces, is getting one of his earliest lessons in the law of causality. This principle, as he works it out by degrees, means that the human will is among the most interesting and effective of causes. And every normal, healthy child is engaged incessantly in testing, verifying, and exemplifying the principle.

In doing so, however, he presently makes two discoveries, whether simultaneously or successively, it does not really matter. First, that his causal efficiency is limited in its range. There are some things he cannot do. He can open a door, but he cannot pull down a wall. He can lift a pound, but he cannot lift a ton. His experiments along this line, by means of which he defines and locates the boundary between what he can and what he cannot do, are of great significance in his education, and of great interest to the onlooker. But secondly, he discovers that, even among those things that he *can* do, there are some that he *ought* to do, and some that he *ought not* to do. No more momentous conception than this ever broke into the consciousness of man. It is a distinctively human conception, and it is largely this that gives to man his unique place among the inhabitants of this planet.

It is a most interesting question for the teacher, how, and by what means, this last great distinction develops into clear consciousness in the mind of the child, and what are the principal factors of his experience that play a part in that development. By way of reply to that question, I may point out two things

that are in almost continuous operation from the beginning of the child's life, and play a very large part in the unfolding of his moral nature.

First, among the things that he can do, there are some that bring to him *pleasant* consequences, and others that bring *painful* consequences. If he comes near the fire when he is cold, the result is agreeable feeling; if he comes too near, the result is disagreeable feeling. Now pleasure and pain are so widely involved in our human experiences and actions, that it is not at all unnatural that strong links of association should be forged in the mind, between the right and the pleasant on the one hand, and between the wrong and the painful on the other, and that the childish judgment should begin to form itself, provisionally and tentatively, "Perhaps the right is the same as the pleasant, and the wrong the same as the painful."

Secondly, among the things that he can do, there are some which he is *told to do*, and others which he is *told not to do*. And as he receives these commands and prohibitions usually from persons for whom he entertains strong affection, and in whose wisdom he reposes implicit confidence, it is not at all unnatural that strong links of association should be forged between the right and the commanded on the one hand, and between the wrong and the forbidden on the other; and that the childish judgment should begin to form itself, provisionally and tentatively, "Perhaps the right means what I am told to do, and the wrong what I am told not to do." But at all events you may depend upon it, he is trying to interpret his experiences, and to understand, and adjust himself to the "order" in which he finds himself, never doubting, apparently, that his world is orderly, and susceptible of interpretation.

Now, it is worthy of special notice, that these two sets of associated ideas—the right as the pleasant on the one hand, and the right as the commanded on the other—do partly reinforce each other, and partly counteract and contradict each other. They reinforce each other in this way, that many of the things that are commanded have pleasant consequences, while many of those that are forbidden have painful; either in the ordinary course of nature, or by virtue of intentional arrangement on the part of those who issue the commands; as, for example, in any little induce-

ments or deterrents, rewards or punishments, that definitely connect pleasure with the child's obedience, and pain with his disobedience, each to each. They counteract and contradict each other, inasmuch as that which is commanded is not always pleasant, and that which is forbidden is not always painful. And so, if some commanded thing is painful, he tends to think of it, by the one set of associations, as right, and by the other as wrong. On the surface, then, the same things seem to be right and wrong at the same time, which is, of course, impossible and unthinkable, even for the mind of the child. What, then, is to be done? He is confronted at this juncture of his experience, with one of those deadlocks that, for the time being, seem to dislocate his world and drive order back into chaos.

Here I believe the average child is saved by his own native moral sanity. Explain it how you will, but it seems that every normal child is strongly disposed, in the first place, to render homage to the personality, the wisdom, and the will of others on whom he sees himself dependent and, in the second place, to divorce the pleasant from the right, to the extent at least of admitting into his consciousness the possibility that a thing may be right though disagreeable, or wrong though agreeable. In other words, it is not a difficult matter for him, in theory at least, to exalt the law of the personal will above the law of pleasure-pain, though, like the rest of us he may at times find it something of a struggle to apply in practice what he has already fully conceded in theory.

But the child is not yet through with his difficulties. For on the one hand, though he is quite ready to admit, that in specific instances, the wrong may be pleasant and the right painful, yet it is very difficult for him, as for you and me, to admit that on the whole, and in the long run, good conduct should bring pain and bad conduct pleasure. This is one of the strong points in the arguments of the Hedonists (whose arguments are in many other respects so weak) a point which even Kant, though very strongly opposed to Hedonism, felt himself compelled to recognize. Surely a good life must, in the long run, be a guarantee of felicity, even though any single act of virtue may involve pain. Surely the pain which goodness sometimes costs us is merely a transitory incident, due to lack of adjustment, and destined to be eliminated



when that adjustment has become complete. The doctrine of the future state, as set forth in nearly all theological systems, shows how deep-seated this conviction is. The moral order seems to require, after all, a real and positive connection between virtue and pleasure, even though the former cannot be defined in terms of the latter. A world in which virtue led always to misery and vice to happiness, would be an unthinkable and intolerable thing. It would not be a *moral order*, but an *immoral disorder*.

Turning now for a moment to the other idea, namely, that what is commanded is right, most children find that all is not smooth sailing even here. For all human authority is fallible, and more or less fickle and arbitrary, issuing commands and prohibitions that are more or less inconsistent with one another; proceeding now on one principle of government and now on another, and sometimes on no principle at all, but only on impulse. Even those children who are in the very best hands are bound to suffer to some extent from this cause, and those who have the misfortune to be in bad hands suffer more than their tongues could tell. If there is one thing more than another for which I would plead, it is that in all our dealings with children we shall exemplify the principles of justice and fair play. To the Greeks justice was the greatest of all the virtues; it was this that secured a proper balance and symmetry of character in the individual; it was this that made the social order and a healthy state possible; it was this that realized on earth the spirit of the kingdom of heaven. We are in the habit of saying that every child hungers for love, and we are right; but it is equally true that every child hungers for justice; and you may be as affectionate as you please, but if you are fickle and arbitrary and unfair, your affection will be heavily discounted in the mind of the child.

However, even when we have done our best, there will inevitably come a time when the child will realize that the right cannot be identified with the commanded, at least not in detail; for in spite of our most careful thought, contradictions and inconsistencies will appear, and force upon him the necessity of a higher synthesis. It will gradually become clear to the average, normal child, under favourable conditions, and even perhaps under unfavourable conditions, that the right is right and ought to be done, even though it may not be commanded, just as it ought to



be done even though it may not be pleasant; that no reason need ever be given for doing the right, except that it is the right.

And yet, just as we found that we could not divorce the right from the pleasant, on the whole and in the long run, so here I believe, the normal child will find it difficult to divorce the right from the commanded, on the whole and in the long run, even though he may be compelled to admit such divorce in some specific instances. For personality is after all the greatest thing he knows, and the thing he most reveres. The good and the right must surely be inseparably connected with personality, somehow, in the long run.

It is at this point that the final synthesis should be made. Not final in the sense of being necessarily subsequent to the others, but final in the sense of explaining them, and taking them up into itself. It is at this point that religion should transfigure morality, and morality should complete itself in religion. And religion renders this service to morality by presenting to the mind of the child the majestic conception (for which the mind of the child is ready, and eagerly prone, even in the Kindergarten stage) of the whole world or universe, as the expression of the wisdom and the will of a supreme, all-perfect personality, who is the author and the sustainer of the physical as well as the moral order, who makes no mistakes, who is never unjust or unfair, who is never fickle or arbitrary or inconsistent, and "with whom is no variableness neither shadow of turning."

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*THE INTERRELATIONS OF HOME AND SCHOOL.*

DR. CAROLINE BROWN, MEMBER, BOARD OF EDUCATION, TORONTO.

Home and school are partners and together should and must do the world's most vital work—the improvement and the conservation of the human race—physically, mentally and morally.

Home is the senior partner in the firm of Home & School, and perhaps should always contrive to be the most important and the most potential member.

Home, of late years, however, has been shirking his or her duties and forcing more and more of them on the school, and still more recently has come and is coming the awakening of woman. They have been wont to say politics for men—governing of schools is politics, therefore to be left entirely to the men, and by this reasoning shirking responsibilities. The very root of politics is the home—"Home Rule." From the home it is but a step to the school, and from the school to the municipality, from the municipality to the State and from the State to the Empire. The beginning of Empire greatness is the home. To follow up this beginning the woman or the man must follow the child into the school, and hold fast the link that binds the present to the future.

Fitting that this great awakening to the value of child time should come at the time of a great war—the struggle of a great nation—the greatest the world has ever known—great in finance, great in resources, great in honour. There can be no loss to Britain greater than the loss of her honour, so said Earl Grey when asked had he counted the cost of so great a war.

It is in a crisis such as the present world struggle that it is possible to get the will of all the people, when it is possible to remember that the nation in every country dwells in the cottage, the thought of all this people turns to efficiency, to conservatism, to overcome waste; waste of men and material. Canada awakened by a great war, looks within herself, finds vast wealth, wealth in mines, in forest, in soil. The Government turns the mines into wealth, seeks to conserve and re-forest the lands, turns prairies into vast wheat fields.

To the Home and School Government belongs the task of the conservation and of the enriching mentally, physically, morally, the vast human resource, and this can be best accomplished by the closer union of these two concerns. The home and school.

Whether for good or for ill the home in many cases is becoming less and less a school and the school more and more a home for the children. It is sad to say it, but it is often true that to many children, children of even well-to-do parents, the teacher and school are more than the home and the parents. In fact, it requires great intelligence, much time and very considerable devotion on the part of parents nowadays to maintain a paramount influence in the lives of their children and hence the awakening of mothers to the necessity of getting into closer touch with the school and its interests. In order to safeguard their children's interests has originated the Home and School movement.

Should the school assume so many functions which formerly were left entirely to the home?

Perhaps a review of home occupations and duties will help in arriving at a conclusion.

Long ago the home performed the following duties to its members:—

1. It provided raw materials of clothing, spun, wove and manufactured it into clothing.

2. Provided both the material and the labour for both the building of the home and the making of the furniture. Now the factory has supplanted the home in these matters.

3. The home was a school of religious instruction, now the Sunday School does that work.

4. The home provided the raw materials of food and manufactured them into food, now factories produce ready-cooked and even pre-digested foods.

In other words the modern world has specialized and the specialization has extended to the bringing up of children.

Teachers are trained specialists; but what duties to the child can teachers perform better than the father and the mother.

Does specialized production give us better homes, better furniture, better clothes, etc., than the home-made article of long ago.

If so, why should not specially trained educators, school doctors, school nurses, school cooks, etc., do better for the child

physically, mentally and morally than the majority of parents who have had no special training for these great duties and besides have not the time, for they, too, drift into special callings.

The whole tendency of educational development in large cities to-day is in the direction of handing the children of the great majority of the people over to municipal care as early in life as possible so that they may receive scientific care and not suffer from the errors of parents who cannot be specialists in the care and education of children.

The discoveries of recent times along the lines of the interdependence of physical, mental and moral development point to the school as the best place for the child, provided the school is properly fitted up and made home-like. An alternative is to have the schools supervise the care of the child from infancy in the home so that the child shall be scientifically cared for from its earliest existence. In fact, education should begin before birth. A great deal of the work of teachers, nurses and school doctors is towards the ill effects of improper treatment of children before coming to school. If the school must go more and more into the home, the home should also go more and more into the school. There should be perfect co-operation between the two. The more in accord the parent is with the teacher, the better it is for the child; often a parent's first acquaintance with the teacher is when Johnny has been punished and mother angrily comes to the school to see about it. Had the mother been teacher's friend, Johnny would not have gotten into trouble, and there would have been no punishment and consequently no angry mother.

There is a very strong tendency toward using municipal government for securing a great variety of communal benefits. Benefits which were formerly secured through the medium of private and corporate business organizations, such as transportation (in large cities) water service, fire protection, lighting, heating (from central station) serving of meals from a central station as at public eating houses. It seems as though by this means better service is obtained and the people relieved from drudgery and left free for social and intellectual development.

The question is, can or should the school resent this tendency? Is the time coming, is it near at hand when children will all be



fed at school and provided with clothing as well? What arguments are there for and what are there against?

With the coming of war, we realize how little we belong to ourselves. How State owned we are, therefore should not the State help the home to raise, physically, mentally and morally fit children, fit citizens for the State.

The home has been something like a silent partner in the Home and School firm, but now with the union of both, with both putting the shoulder to the wheel and each looking after its distinctive part in relation to the good of the other members, what vast fields open before us. The school welcomes the home. The home the school. In union is strength. Let our motto be "For Home, for School, for Empire."

Honour and shame from no condition rise;  
Act well your part, there all the honour lies.

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*TRIBUTE TO THE MEMORY OF MISS SUSAN E. BLOW.*

MISS MARY ADAIR, PHILADELPHIA.

Those dear friends and companions who grew up with Miss Blow, and walked step by step with her to the end of a long life, are no doubt saying to each other, or, thinking for comfort to themselves, that—

She is not dead, she is just away—  
With a cheery smile, and a wave of the hand,  
She has wandered into an unknown land,  
And left us wondering, how fair  
It all must be, since she lingers there.

I do not suppose that any one of us lived in such an intimate relationship with Miss Blow, and yet we, and all Kindergartners everywhere, feel “that the sun rises to-day, and sets upon less of worth in the world,” and I am sure that we all feel, too, that strange thrill that comes to us all at times, with the command to fill up the ranks, a more intense thrill as we realize that in the personality of Miss Blow no common soul had crossed our path.

A certain rigid directness in contact with others, distinguished Miss Blow, a sort of stern uprightness, as of an oak, true to its nature, which might break but would not bend, and we say how well it seems, that “God fulfils Himself in many personalities, lest one great type should fail of realization.” The Kindergarten owes a great debt to Miss Blow even through her personal qualities, that she could steer for her own North Star without veering from side to side, because of a certain singleness of purpose in the aims of her life.

Several distinct dangers from within menaced the Kindergarten, sentimentalism on one hand, and aesthetic ritualism on the other, and perhaps a still more subtle menace in the belief that *efficiency* means character, and that hand skill is the real opportunity of the Kindergarten. While Miss Blow realized to the full the value of feeling and of handskill, and was by nature very sympathetic to ritual, she stood firmly and against

great opposition upon the principle that *consciousness* is the vital factor in character building—to *know* that one feels, to *know* what one has made and how and why—that consciousness is the only true reaction toward the development of a real human life.

Impressed by her singleness of purpose and her spiritual stature men by her side stood straighter. Young women in response to her teaching, vowed to live purer, nobler lives, and through the length and breadth of the land little children, who never heard her name, will bless her loving service, "for sweet childhood's sake."

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## HOME SCIENCE SECTION

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### *ACTING PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

MISS V. RYLEY, TORONTO.

This is the thirteenth annual meeting of the Home Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association met together to discuss the various problems and difficulties of Household Science people.

Our subject is a very wide one. I like Mrs. Richards definition of Household Science as the "Art of Right Living." This is so broad that it includes almost everything. I do not think any other subject touches life upon so many different points. In the Household Science section we have teachers from the public school to the university, Dietitians, Institutional Housekeepers, Social Workers, and Home Makers, each dealing with some special branch of this great problem of "Right Living."

This morning I am going to speak for a few minutes upon but one of the many branches of Household Science work, namely, "The work of a Dietitian and some of the special problems of this work."

There are several different kinds of dietitians. There are three distinct types of hospital dietitians alone. Then we have dietitians in charge of colleges, dining halls, lunch rooms and cafeterias, and soon I hope, in charge of our hotels, after prohibition comes into force, and, last of all, the visiting dietitian in connection with some of the social settlements.

For the sake of many who are teachers, and not in direct touch with dietitians and their work, I will explain a few of the points of difference among these various types of dietitians.

1. Perhaps the best known type of Hospital Dietitian is the one who is principally a teacher of nurses and who supervises the special diet kitchen where the nurses receive their practical training in the preparation of special diets for patients, and where



the food either fully or in part, is prepared for the private patients. Her work demands particular ability as a teacher. She has usually from two to four nurses at a time in training, and her mornings are very fully occupied supervising their practical work. If she is allowed to plan the diets for particular cases her work is much more interesting.

2. There is the Hospital Dietitian, whose work is mainly executive. She probably does little teaching and rarely comes into contact with the nurses. She plans the menus for the doctors, nurses, employees and patients; orders or requisitions all supplies and engages the employees from the chef down. Her time is rarely her own and she may be called upon to meet emergencies seven days in the week and to adjust differences among her help.

3. There is the Housekeeping Dietitian, employed in many small hospitals where it is impossible to afford a head for the dietary department only, or to take entire charge of the nurses' residence in a very large hospital, where she superintends everything—diet, housekeeping, laundry and help. Her duties are only bounded by her willingness and her capability. If I may, I should like to read a short extract from an address by Miss Mary Lindsley of the Nurses' Residence of Cook's County Illinois Hospital in Chicago.

"The housekeeping dietitian has a very broad and interesting field. Her work may cover the entire housekeeping department or it may only include certain parts of it. If it does cover the entire field it is one of the most important positions in the household. It is an ideal profession for a woman, one in which she can do her best work, and if she puts her personality and enthusiasm into it can make it show as much individuality as she could in her own home. She is the one person in the hospital who can give it the atmosphere of home.

"Her work will embrace the managing of the laundry and linen room, the cleaning and care of the nurses' home, general kitchen, employing the help, and perhaps the buying of the supplies needed for these departments. In fact, it will embrace just as much of housekeeping as she is willing to do and capable of handling. And here should be emphasized the importance of every woman handling all the work for which she is mentally and physically capable, and not hesitating because it isn't the

work she was engaged to do. The hospital needs women who are willing to shoulder its burdens.

"In order to handle this work the housekeeping dietitian will need a kitchen matron, head laundress, a competent woman in the linen room, and, depending on the size of her hospital, an assistant, someone in each place who will care for the details and on whom she can depend, and in whom she can instil the importance of feeling that the work is entirely theirs and that not an article be wasted that can possibly be utilized."

A dietitian's work generally follows along one of the three lines described. For example, the dietitian in charge of a college dining hall, a cafeteria or a lunch room, usually has work similar to the dietitian in charge of the general kitchen and help in a hospital. Her work is not as narrow as the teacher dietitian in charge of the special diet kitchen, nor yet so broad as the housekeeping dietitian.

You may ask whether it is advisable for the household science graduate wishing to enter any of these fields of work to have any special training other than what she receives during her college course. I believe that it is decidedly advisable, because it is impossible in a school to gain the actual experience obtained in the actual day to day work of an institution. The dietitian who enters an institution as a pupil dietitian gains experience in the actual work of planning menus, planning daily work of employees, buying of supplies, inspection of building, familiarity with institutional equipment and the management of help. She needs time to observe, think, and read along this line for several months before she actually assumes the full responsibility for the management of the dietary department in some institution.

### *Planning of Menus.*

In planning menus for a large number of people there are three factors to be considered: Food; cost; labour.

Food.—The food must be suitable, e.g., if feeding men plan a menu to suit a man's needs. The food must be satisfying and well liked. If a dietitian serves a dish and finds it is not popular she is wise if she refuses to serve it again or at least not for a long time. There must be variety. It is easier to plan the menu for a week or ten days at once with relation to the two

weeks previous. Some articles are repeated quite frequently while others appear but seldom.

Cost.—All menus must be planned with a constant watch at the cost. The food is the greatest item in the expense account of an institution so the selection of dishes must be considered very carefully. Any dietitian who runs a deficit does not tend to increase the confidence of the superintendent or president in the dietitian's ability from a business standpoint. She must "cut out her garment according to the cloth" or plan her menu to correspond with the income.

The most expensive item is that of meat. Meat costs differ very widely, for example, steak may cost three times as much as roast beef. Desserts do not vary so widely as the meats in cost, and to-day I believe the wise dietitian will plan, as far as possible, to be sure of attractive desserts even if she must economize in the selection of her meats. With meats at the fabulous prices they are at present if a dietitian's problem is to feed men it is indeed a difficult one, and she must strive to atone for an almost certain monotony of roast meat by as great a variety as possible of vegetables and desserts. For example, notice the small number of expensive meats and the large selection of attractive desserts served in cafeterias and quick lunch places.

Labour.—The planning of a menu from the labour standpoint is often the most difficult. There are only so many kitchen helpers available, and two dishes each requiring a great deal of labour cannot be placed on the menu at the same meal, for example, hamburger steak, fruit salad; also it may be necessary to lighten the work on one day to help out a heavy menu coming on the following day.

### *Plan of Work.*

After the menu is planned comes the daily planning of work. This can only be done for a half day or a day at the most. Again there are *three* factors to be considered: 1. Employees available; 2. Menu; 3. Weather.

### *Employees and Menu.*

Plainly the most important point is to find how many employees are available. If two or three are away either the menu

must be changed or the cleaning programme must be curtailed. Sometimes both have to be considerably altered.

### *Weather.*

The weather has a big influence upon the plan of work. Just before a delivery of one hundred bags of potatoes or during a heavy rain is not the time to clean the main corridor, even though it is the regular morning according to the cleaner's time table.

### *Buying of Supplies.*

The pupil receives a knowledge of the few large items that are purchased to advantage at certain seasons, such as butter, eggs, canned goods, sugar, etc.

### *Inspection of Building.*

The pupil usually takes charge of the detailed inspection of the dining halls and the building. She works out a system and learns how to inspect both rapidly and thoroughly.

### *Institutional Equipment.*

The pupil in training becomes familiar with institutional equipment and labour saving devices, because electricity to-day is much cheaper than man power.

### *Management of Help.*

Possibly more dietitians have met their Waterloo in the help problem than in anything else, and the household science graduate entering on dietitian's work particularly needs to gain experience here and have a chance to observe the difficulties she may have to meet.

Right Spirit.—The most important thing in the management of help is the maintenance of the right spirit in the institution. There must be mutual confidence and co-operation. Help to-day, which is really good, is perfectly independent. There is a much greater demand than supply, and a good employee is a very valuable asset. This must always be remembered in giving a criticism.



It is nothing short of a fine art to give a criticism in such a way as to really stimulate and not merely hurt or annoy an employee. Some genuine praise and appreciation mixed in with the criticism, and clear reasons why your wishes are better, go a long way towards maintaining harmony between the management and the help. Institutional etiquette demands that each be given his due.

In training new employees the pupil has an opportunity to observe the qualities required for each position. For example, a waiter or waitress requires to have quick observation, good memory, system, speed, and agreeable personality. A man may claim that he is a waiter but his deficiencies are soon discovered when his work is carefully observed during the serving of meals. The pupil observes employees and is of assistance in selecting a competent staff of workers. One of the saddest things in life is the great number of total misfits. Possibly not more than one in every three or four who attempt to become waiters or waitresses are really successful. The unfit must be eliminated.

The head positions are always the most difficult to fill. It is very difficult to find people who can assume the control of others. They may be excellent workers themselves but possibly lack tact or dislike the responsibility for the work of others. The secret of success is the correct placing of responsibility, therefore, it will be clearly seen how very important is the selection of the head of a department.

Finally what a pupil receives from her course of training depends, largely, upon what she puts into it. If she is to gain the most from her course she must read, study, and observe very closely and gain experience from day to day, that may prove of priceless value when she assumes the full responsibility of some position in the future.

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*SOME TENDENCIES IN HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE.*

DR. F. W. MERCHANT.

Present tendencies can be discerned and interpreted only in relation to past movements. To understand the significance of the various forms of educational work, either of a general or of a trade character, undertaken for girls and women, one must study our present efforts in the light of their origins. Unfortunately the task of tracing these movements to their beginnings is not a difficult one, because we have not far to go to find the origin of the movement in the Province for a specialized education for girls. Thirty years ago no provision was made for special courses for girls in our Public Schools or High Schools and it was much later before Boards began seriously to consider the question of differentiating the courses for girls from those for boys in these institutions. My own attention was first called to this subject when I was Principal of the Collegiate Institute at London by the efforts of Mrs. Hoodless, Mrs. Boomer, and other pioneers, when they were endeavouring to persuade the Board of Education in that city to organize domestic science classes in connection with the Public Schools and the Collegiate Institute. I remember well the almost hopeless task that these ladies had in making an impression upon the members of the Board; but, year after year, they renewed their efforts, and, in the end, the trustees became enthusiastic advocates of what they at first were prone to regard as fads and frills. A similar campaign was carried on in other cities and towns throughout the Province with the result that at present household science classes are organized in connection with the Provincial Schools in seventy-nine different centres.

The value of this work has been generally recognized. Dr. Hastings, who was to have addressed you, would, doubtless, have emphasized the important relation of household science teaching to public health. I find that physicians generally are beginning to recognize the importance of this phase of the work. A few weeks ago I attended a dinner given to the Board of Education, the Advisory Industrial Committee, and the Board of Control of the City of London by the household science department of the

London Industrial School. At this dinner the Mayor of the city stated that he, as a physician in his visits to the homes of the city, had had abundant evidence of the excellent work done by the teachers of the household science departments of the city schools in promoting more healthful conditions of home life. He commended most unreservedly the work of the schools. Similar testimony, doubtless, could be secured in most centres where household science departments have been organized.

But it is in the home itself that the value of the school courses is now coming to be most fully appreciated. The attitude of the parents towards these courses is one of the most gratifying of the present tendencies. In the beginning home recognition of the value of school work was not so clearly admitted. In fact, quite often there existed in some of the homes a fairly strong prejudice against the work done in the schools. Mothers were prone to be exacting in their demands for perfection in their daughters who had attended short school courses. Frequently, also, there was conflict between the empirical methods of the home and the more scientific methods of the school, especially when school girls criticized their mothers for such differences.

But any opposition that exists in the home towards household science courses dies out when parents come to see in a reasonable way the real relation of school work to home activities. What parents appreciate possibly more than the information or skill in household arts acquired by the girls is their changed attitude towards home work, which comes to be regarded as a vocation and not as drudgery.

The growing tendency to recognize the importance of a specialized training for girls found expression in the establishment of the Macdonald Institute at Guelph. The establishment of this school was due to a private benefaction; but the school should be looked upon not so much as an example of open-handed liberality as of the tendency of the leaders of our country in national enterprises to study and to appreciate at their true value the necessities of a wider training for girls in home activities. The maintenance of this school as a Provincial institution is an evidence of popular appreciation and support.

This school, under your esteemed President, has done most excellent work for the country, not only in carrying out the

ideas of the founder in giving a liberal and practical education to a host of young women from all parts of the Province who will build up the homes of our country, but also in training the teachers who have been instrumental in the development of the work, to which I have already referred, in Public and High Schools. But the school has done more. It has demonstrated most conclusively that the activities of the home are so wide and varied that a girl's education can be made to centre in these activities and that all the essentials of a general education can be directly or indirectly connected with them.

Another important movement in the education of women was started when the Industrial Education Act of 1911 was passed and evening classes began to be established in various parts of the Province. No educational movement possibly has ever spread more widely or at a more rapid rate. At the present time there are thirty-one centres in the Province where evening classes for women are held. In these classes are enrolled 8,836 women. The subjects of study have a wide range, including cooking, home nursing and first aid, hygiene, home economics, sewing and dress-making, operation of power machinery, embroidery and art needlework, lace making, millinery, art and design, English, mathematics, and chemistry. The courses in these classes are of a varying degree of length and variety. The courses in certain subjects in some of the schools extend over a period of three years. Others again of a short unit character are established in which from ten to twenty lessons are given in some narrow specialized subject. All kinds of combinations between these extremes are found. The object has been to offer classes and courses to meet directly the needs of the people concerned. Take dressmaking for example. In some of the classes attended by young girls, a regular detailed course is mapped out which the pupils follow from term to term in the same way as they would pursue the subjects in a day school. In others, again, attended mainly by women who have come to learn to make up their own or their children's clothes, the instruction is mostly of an individual character. Each woman is helped to do the work she finds most necessary in her condition.

All these schools have been doing most useful work. Their success is proved by the appreciation of the pupils and by the



rapid increase in attendance from year to year. Let me give you some evidence. At my annual visit to a school in one of our larger towns, the Principal pointed out a young woman, the wife of a labourer, who had never missed a night at the classes in three years, although she had to walk a distance of over two miles to be in attendance. The night I was at the school the thermometer stood several degrees below zero, and in going home she had to face a biting north wind from the lake. A person who was not getting value for her time would not voluntarily continue attendance under such conditions. At my first visit to another school three years ago I saw a young girl of about fourteen years of age who had done an exceptional amount of good work. At each succeeding visit I found this pupil in her place and at my last inspection of the school she had her young sister with her. The Principal of the school informed me that the parents of the girls had expressed to him their delight at the assistance that the school had been to them in their home. The elder girl is likely to take up trade work. These are, it is true, only individual examples, but let me assure you that they are really typical of the work that the evening schools are doing for the people.

I have emphasized at some length the importance of the evening classes for women mainly because, while they have been appreciated by those in attendance, they have not always received the recognition and support that they should receive from the public. Early in the year I had a letter from the Chairman of an Advisory Industrial Committee notifying me that the committee proposed to close their evening classes because most of the men in attendance had gone to the war and that it was not worth while to continue classes attended by women only. The committee, you will admit, took a narrow view of the situation, but its action expressed fairly accurately a feeling quite prevalent that, where there is no direct trade outlook in women's work, the necessity for special training at public expense is questionable. The position of this committee is but another example of the failure to recognize that the activities of the home constitute one of the most important of the industries of our country.

In a review of the tendencies that are shaping and marking the progress of the advance of an education in household science, one must give an important place to the organization of the house-

hold science department of University of Toronto. The establishing of this department is an acknowledgment of the liberalizing effects of the studies which form the scientific basis of home activities. The equipment and accommodation make provision for the highest class of scientific work, and the courses of study open up to young women of ability the means of such a training in the higher departments of knowledge as will fit them to become leaders of thought and activity.

Let me point out also that in the household science courses we have one of but few examples where work which is really of a vocational character is accepted as part of the requirements for a B.A. degree in the University of Toronto. The other outstanding example is found in the combination courses for degrees in arts and medicine. Do we not see an important connection here? Does not the same idea underlie both, the vital relation of the home to the physical and spiritual life of the community?

I have made a rapid survey of our various lines of effort in the development of household science courses. We are now beginning to see that all of these have their limitations. The ordinary household science classes in the Public Schools and in the High Schools, the classes in which most of you are interested, do not meet fully the demands of a girl's education. This you will, I believe, admit. These classes are regarded in the schools more or less as appendages and not as a central part of the course of study. The time given to the subject, from one to two hours a week, is not sufficient, and the courses offered do not cover fully all the important interests of a woman in the home. These schools, as I have said, fill at present an important place, but this form of organization cannot be regarded as sufficient or final.

Specialized schools, like the Macdonald Institute, cover a wider range of work in a most complete and practical way. They have all the advantages that a residential school offers for a training in home life. But, unfortunately, a residential school can never be the solution of the education of the great proportion of the women of the country, because, from economic and other conditions, attendance at such schools for most is impossible.

Nor do the evening schools provide an adequate solution of the problem of the education of the woman for the home. The chief function of such schools is to supplement other educational

agencies. Education to be effective should be continuous. This practice is followed in the main in our systems of professional and higher education. The student passes naturally from the Public School to the High School and from the High School to the University or professional school. His interests are maintained and his energies conserved. An effective system for education in household science should provide for similar continuity. Now continuity cannot be preserved if the evening schools are to be an essential link in the course of training, because it is evident that we shall never be able to induce pupils in large numbers to pass directly from the day schools to the evening schools. Evening school attendance requires an eagerness and a tenacity of purpose not usually possessed by children at this age. Moreover, it is doubtful whether it is advisable from the standpoint of physical development further to tax the energies of growing girls who give up the day to work by additional work in evening schools.

It is only through day schools that continuity of training can be preserved and the requisite time be secured for broad and thorough courses.

But you ask, have we not a complete system of day schools of both an elementary and a secondary character? I shall not discuss the elementary school situation. Some believe that there should be a somewhat radical reconstruction of our Public School system, especially with the purpose of incorporating vocational work into the later years of the course. It would take me too far afield to enter on this question here. The High School situation is more closely related to my immediate purpose. The High Schools were in the beginning designed to be preparatory schools for boys who were to go to the University, and their courses are still to a great extent dominated by the boy idea and the University idea. Women who are to earn their living in professions and callings in competition with men should have equal opportunities for preparing themselves by training for these occupations. This principle was somewhat slow in being accepted, but it is now very generally admitted, and our High School and University organizations make provision for carrying it out. Accordingly, the needs of girls who desire to prepare for entrance to the Normal Schools or to the University, or to fit themselves

for positions in business houses are well met by the regular courses in our High Schools.

But why should the girls whose sphere is to be the home, and these form the majority of the twenty-three thousand girls in our Continuation and High Schools, be required to take the same course of training as the boys who are to go into business, enter a profession, or take up a trade? No one gives a satisfactory reason for the present procedure, yet we all admit that these girls would profit more by a course which would give less attention to theoretical mathematics and science and more to literature, art, and music, and on the practical side would stress the activities and the industries of the home.

Here let me point out that conditions are not as bad as they might appear. We are making progress. We are still to a great extent bound by traditional practice, but no longer by legal enactments. On the contrary, the Department of Education is doing all in its power to promote more satisfactory courses. Our school laws now provide for the organization of public day schools in which girls who have reached the standard of the fourth form in the Public Schools may receive a training in harmony with their needs. Schools of this type may be organized under the Industrial Education Act, which provides for the establishing of either special schools or special departments connected with High Schools. On the academic side, the course of study in these schools must include the essentials of a good English education; on the practical side provision must be made for all the typical activities that pertain to the home. In addition, industrial work of a trade character may be taught to all girls who desire to prepare themselves for earning their living at any of the trades commonly regarded as suitable for women. But the pupils that elect to stress trade work are required to take a general course in household science as well. You will, I believe, agree with me that this provision is to be commended. May we not accept it as a general proposition that every woman who is to be trained to earn her living at any trade or calling should also be trained for the sphere of the home.

Two day schools, providing full courses of instruction for girls are organized under the Industrial Education Act, the Toronto Technical School and the London Industrial School. The work



for girls in both of these schools is most successful. Miss Davidson and Miss Sills, who are the heads of two Departments in the Toronto School will, I am sure, be delighted to explain personally to any one interested the details of the courses in this school. The London School is also worth a visit. The equipment is not so elaborate as that in this building, but the work done is excellent.

These two schools represent, I take it, the type of school in which we shall find the solution of the problem of a more satisfactory education for girls in urban centres. The education of girls for rural home life is a much more difficult problem. The solution here possibly will be found partly through the residential school and partly through part-time and full-time courses in consolidated schools.

To come back to the urban situation, in which I am more particularly interested as director of industrial and technical education. The Provincial Government not only makes the organization of schools and departments of the type I have described legal, but it shows its appreciation of the value of the work done in such schools by supporting them by most liberal grants. Under certain conditions and limitations the Department pays two-thirds in towns and one-half in cities of the total amount paid for the salaries of teachers engaged in this work. It also pays by instalments for equipment, and gives large grants for accommodations.

Why are not more schools of this type organized? Provision for such schools is new, traditional courses are thoroughly established and are given value in certain examinations. Inertia is strong. An onward current is diverted with difficulty. An education has come to mean a certain type of High School or University training. Other types are regarded with suspicion. It is difficult to convince people that vocational courses can be cultural. But prejudice is being overcome. The attitude of the University, to which I have already referred, in incorporating household science subjects in the arts curriculum is an evidence of the tendency to admit that vocational courses are not necessarily narrow and that no sharp line can be drawn between vocational and cultural education. True culture implies a motive in service. While this is true of all, it is in a peculiar sense true

of the training of women for the home. The ideal is not a liberal education for the enjoyment of a life of inaction and leisure, but rather the most liberal training for effective service. Now while a woman may serve through a variety of activities, her chief service must be directed through her permanent vocation, and her education should accordingly follow the lines which will bring her into most complete freedom for her work, giving her not only practical skill, but, at the same time, helping her to understand and to view her work in all its fulness of relationship, social and æsthetic, scientific and historical, ethical and religious. Her vocation, therefore, may become the centre for the most liberal form of culture.

My main purpose in accepting the invitation of your executive was to emphasize this broader conception of your work and at the same time to bespeak your co-operation in educating the public to a fuller appreciation of the value of a more thorough training of girls through day schools. I recognize that for the present the organization of such schools in our smaller centres of population is impracticable; but there is, in my opinion, place for such institutions in all our larger towns and in our cities. In many cases the establishing of day schools would mean simply the conversion of household science classes into household science departments of High Schools. This would involve the broadening of the course of study and the giving of fully one-half the school time per week to practical work in subjects directly connected with the home.

In conclusion let me say that I trust you will not get the impression that, because I am advocating a special form of organization, I do not fully appreciate the work to be done through other agencies.

One of the discouraging features in connection with the promotion of any forward movement is the tendency so frequently manifest for those interested in one line of action to underestimate or even to oppose work done by other means. I do not wish to be charged with this weakness because I fully recognize that frictional opposition is most wasteful. But I find no real opposition between day schools and evening schools, between full-time courses and part-time courses, and between trade courses and courses which centre in the home. There are conditions under

which each of these forms of effort is the best. Our duty should be to study these conditions and to adapt our organizations and our methods of instruction to meet them, remembering always that of the varying factors which make up these conditions, the children to be educated are central, and that all other factors, such as home conditions, school organization, vocational outlook, must be analyzed, interpreted, and utilized in relation to the possibilities for service latent in their capacities.

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## *THE TEACHING OF TEXTILES AND CLOTHING IN PUBLIC AND HIGH SCHOOLS.*

MISS A. ENID ROBERTSON.

The importance of Domestic Art work in our Public and High School courses of study is now generally recognized. Unfortunately much of the teaching along this line has been very narrow and formal. It has been confined largely to the teaching of sewing. The mechanical side has been overemphasized while the economic, æsthetic and ethical aspects have received little attention. Technical skill has been demanded of the pupils, while the principles underlying the work have been neglected. We realize that sewing is a very important branch of the work, yet we believe that if the subject of Domestic Art is to take its proper place in the educational world; if it is to become more effective in the life of the community, we who are instructors must have a much broader outlook, a larger vision. We must deal with other phases of the work. "Home Economics" has been very efficiently organized under three heads: "Foods," "Clothing" and "Household Management." In this paper I wish to give special attention to the subject "Clothing," hoping that the discussion may lead us to realize more fully what an opportunity we have to develop a very vital subject.

What is the content of this field of work? What are the possibilities of the subject? The scope of the work is very broad, including many topics. It involves a study of the four leading textile fibres, their source, manufacture, adulteration and distribution; a study of fabrics from the standpoint of use, durability and cost, and a study of the principles of hand and machine sewing. It also deals with clothing from the historic, hygienic, economic and artistic points of view. It has to do with such a wide range of topics that it is impossible to enumerate them in the limited time at our disposal. This general outline, however, is suggestive of what the work may mean.

What is our aim in introducing this subject, "Textiles and Clothing," into our Public and High Schools? Before discussing this question let us briefly consider the great change which has



come about in the position of woman in the home, since the introduction of machinery, and how this change has very vitally affected her relation to textile industries. In the early part of the last century our grandmothers and great-grandmothers manufactured in the home the household linen and clothing for their families. They spun the yarn and wove it into cloth, the natural products from the farm going into the making. Now, since the introduction of machinery, all is changed and the manufacture of cloth in the home is almost a forgotten art in this country. In former times the quality of home-made fabrics was the best obtainable from the available materials and appliances; the homemaker was familiar with the characteristics of the different fibres and the quality of the manufactured fabric. She knew that woollen cloth was all wool and that linen cloth was not adulterated by combining the linen fibres with cotton. But economic conditions have changed; the textile industries have been removed from the homes and centralized in factories. And what is the result? The output has been greatly increased while the cost of manufacture has decreased. Many products of inferior quality are now placed on the market. The knowledge of women concerning textile fabrics has decreased and the average woman of to-day has not an intimate acquaintance with the characteristics and value of the cloth used in her household. Woman is the chief purchaser of household products and upon her rests the responsibility of making each dollar procure full value. But the average woman must depend upon the word of the clerk who very frequently is as ignorant as herself. What then do we hope to accomplish by teaching this subject, "Textiles and Clothing" to our Public and High School girls? We wish to give them a knowledge which will enable them to judge of the quality and appropriateness of the many textile fibres to their intended use; to teach them how to purchase wisely; in other words to educate them so that they may be able to discriminate between genuine and adulterated fabrics. In short, we wish to enable our school girls, upon whom in a few years will fall the responsibility of home-making, to be intelligent buyers. In this way we shall be indirectly helping to establish standards in textile industries. In the present day of high prices is it not highly important that girls make a study of these things?

In a paper of this kind it is impossible to state definitely what subject-matter should be included in a course of study in "Textiles and Clothing" that would be appropriate under all circumstances. The teacher must bear in mind that Domestic Art is only one of many subjects on the curriculum and that the time allowed for it is so limited that it is not possible to take up all phases of the work. Local conditions should govern the selection of subject-matter to a certain extent, and each teacher must decide for herself what particular topics would be most profitable for her girls. A few suggestions, however, may prove helpful.

The study of textiles should be taken as a basis for all the work. In connection with this the four leading textile fibres—cotton, linen, wool and silk, should be studied. This study will include the origin and nature of the fibres, their manufacture into cloth and the characteristics of the finished product. The pupils should have some definite knowledge of *standard* fabrics. For instance, the names, widths and prices of such might be discussed in order to familiarize the girls with the common materials used. A study of trimmings is also important in order that a wise selection be made. We should endeavour to teach the pupils how to choose material from the standpoint of use, durability and cost. A comparison of these four fibres as to the amount produced annually, the properties of the various materials made, their cost, wearing qualities and the ease with which they may be cleaned, makes an interesting subject for the older girls.

Then, too, the adulteration of cloth is important. At the present time many materials of inferior quality are placed on the market. These are deceptive in appearance and their names are misleading. In order to guard against this deception a general knowledge of the adulteration of textile fibres is necessary and our girls should receive some instruction along this line. How few women are familiar with the different methods of adulteration practised. For example, the practice of "weighting" silk is unknown to the average woman who wonders why little pin holes soon appear in her silk garments. She does not know that the silk fibre has the property of absorbing a large amount of water without feeling perceptibly damp to the touch. She is not aware that the manufacturer has taken advantage of this fact and

weights the silk with metallic salts. A certain percentage of salt is legitimate and helps to set the dye; but quite frequently the silk is heavily weighted with salts. This weakens the threads and causes the silk to split in a short time. After discussing the different methods of adulteration we should give the girls simple, practical tests which will enable them to intelligently discriminate between the true and the make-believe; in other words, to know real values. Some chemical tests may be taken up with High School girls. This study of textiles will not only create an interest which will remain with the girl when she has greater opportunity for buying, but it will give the whole subject a rich thought content.

Hand and machine sewing includes the application of stitch-forms, seams, hems, etc., to the making of such articles as will be of particular value and interest to the girls. In connection with this branch of the work simple embroidery may be taken up. This may be the application of decorative stitches to the articles made. The use of commercial patterns and the economical cutting of materials should also be taught. The value of a well-made article should be emphasized, while the relative value of hand and machine work should be considered from the standpoint of time and energy expended, durability, appearance, etc.

Again the girls should be prepared to intelligently consider the subject of "clothing" from an economic standpoint. This is especially suited to the older girls who are usually intensely interested in the dress problem. Such topics as the following may be discussed: The value of time and labour which go into the making of a garment; the relative cost of home-made and ready-made garments; the responsibility of spending money; the percentage of income which should be spent for clothing; the necessary articles a girl needs for her wardrobe; economy in planning this wardrobe. We should endeavour to impress upon the girls that true thrift consists in economizing time and in spending wisely as well as in saving. We should try to show them, too, that they have a responsibility in the care as well as in the selection of their clothing. They should be taught that there is economy in caring for one's clothes, and that keeping the clothes neat and clean and in repair, not only saves money, but cultivates self-respect and is an indication of character. As Ruskin says, "Clothes carefully



cared for and rightly worn show a balance of mind and self-respect." In considering the daily, weekly and annual care of clothes, many practical points may be taken up, such as the hanging up or folding of clothes when not in use, frequent pressing, removal of stains, repairing, sewing on buttons, storage of clothing from season to season, etc.

The study of "Clothing" from a hygienic standpoint is an important branch of the work because the influence of proper clothing upon health should be emphasized. Under this heading we may consider such topics as clothing in relation to health, comfort and appearance; fabrics most suitable for different seasons, and why; what constitutes hygienic clothes for growing girls; hygienic factors involved in the selection of underwear; cleanliness and use of underwear; care of clothing at night. Many other problems will suggest themselves.

Then, again, the artistic side should not be overlooked. In dealing with this phase of the work we should endeavour to teach that there is beauty in simple style rather than in extreme fashions. We should try to show the pupils, too, that clothes reflect character and that the girl who endeavours to dress in good taste, and who does not try to keep up with the constant and extreme changes in style, is showing more common sense and more force of character than the one who demands the ultra-fashionable in dress. There are many opportunities, too, to give suggestions as to good taste in dress, good colour combination and appropriate clothing for different occasions. In connection with this work, we can help the girls to appreciate good design.

The manner in which the various phases of this work is to be presented is perhaps a more difficult problem than the selection of subject-matter. Let us first consider a few general principles which are applicable to all branches of the work.

The teaching of Domestic Art should be on as high a plane as that of the regular academic subjects and the subject matter should be presented from an educational standpoint. It should be taught in such a way as to provide mental activity on the part of the pupils. The teacher should have some definite plan of action in mind and at the beginning of each lesson there should be class instruction which will stimulate the minds of the pupils. Then individual attention may be given. Whenever possible there



should be correlation with other school subjects such as arithmetic, English, geography, nature study, etc. This will make the subject more vital and more worth while to the child. (I have a chart which will illustrate how the work may be correlated. I shall show this at the close.)

The subject presents opportunity for the abundant use of illustrative material in class instruction. Explanations can be facilitated by means of charts, blackboard sketches, pictures, exhibits, etc. There is so much available material for instruction in this work that we have time for a few suggestions only. Sketches simply drawn on the blackboard or more carefully prepared drawings are very useful, particularly if different colours of chalk are used. A large piece of canvas, a coarse needle and coloured thread are helpful in the teaching of stitch-forms. Ordinary wrapping paper, manilla paper, striped or checked tissue paper, cardboard, black blotting paper and crinoline are of great assistance in presenting the various phases of the work. It requires considerable time to prepare this illustrative material but the teacher will find it of great value in saving time in the class room. It helps to clarify and strengthen the lesson and it also sustains the interest of the class.

Regarding the teaching of each particular subject a few hints may be given. First, *textiles*. If time permits this subject may be approached from the historic standpoint and made most interesting by giving an account of the evolution of textile industries from prehistoric ages to the present time. It may be taught in relation to the sewing, thus enhancing its practical value. Discussions should precede the making of a garment in order to give an added interest. For instance, the various materials which might be used in the construction may be considered and the characteristics of each discussed. These should be illustrated with full width samples so that they can be handled by every girl. In this way she learns to associate the name, appearance and feel of each. The knowledge gained may then be applied in the purchasing of the material selected for the garment.

Books of textile samples are useful and a collection of fabrics, laces, etc., with their respective names, prices and uses are of great assistance. The pupils should be encouraged to collect samples to be mounted in books and to make charts of various fabrics most

commonly used, each marked with its name, price, width and uses. Class work may be supplemented by excursions to stores, factories or museums. Such visits are not only interesting but very instructive.

In dealing with the adulteration of textiles we should endeavour to show the pupils why some manufacturers adulterate their goods. By discussing such topics as the rapid change in fashions, the desire for novelties, etc., and the demand for cheap goods, the pupils may be led to see that these all play an important part in the quality of the articles produced and tend to lower the standard. The manufacturer in trying to cater to the community is tempted to produce goods of inferior grade in order to sell them at a low price. When teaching the methods of adulteration and the various tests, the teacher should distribute small pieces of material among the girls. After experiments have been performed these may be examined and tested, then mounted on cards giving certain data. After interesting the pupils in this branch of the work we should try to show them that each woman who buys is helping to regulate the standard of textiles produced.

In teaching sewing the teacher should first work out the problem by actually making the article, so that she may know the difficulties which are likely to confront her pupils and how to meet them. Such preparation means economy of effort, saving of time and better results. The completed article should be examined by the pupils before they begin the making. New principles should be actually demonstrated on cloth and this demonstration should be large enough so that all can see. It is a good plan to allow the pupils to try new stitch-forms on the demonstration cloth, just as they try a new problem in arithmetic on the blackboard. From the first the teacher should insist on the pupils doing neat work rather than accomplishing a large amount. The importance of thoroughness in all work should be emphasized.

In teaching the correct use of commercial patterns the different parts may be mounted on a background of dark cardboard to enable the pupils to recognize each part and to understand the meaning of the different perforations, notches, etc. Miniature patterns may be placed on a piece of coloured cotton to show the relationship of the different parts to the cloth and thus give the pupils an idea of economy when cutting.

The economic side of clothing may be considered in connection with the sewing. The pupils should be required to estimate the cost of each article made. When considering the cost and actual value of home-made and ready-made garments the teacher should show the garments themselves to the class. The pupils should then examine these and compare them as to the quality of the material used in the making, the appearance, the amount of time and labour involved, workmanship, and the wearing and laundering qualities. It is wise to have the pupils take part in discussing the relative merits of each.

The "Care of Clothing" may be taught in connection with sewing or it may be treated independently. When teaching the repairing of clothing good illustrative material should be used to demonstrate the correct way to do the thing; then the pupils should be required to apply the principles on real articles of use. (Darning a stocking.)

The "Hygiene of Clothing" should be considered from the physiological standpoint. Supplementary talks may be given in the other lessons or definite periods may be devoted to the discussion of this subject.

The artistic side of clothing may also be taken along with the sewing and textile work. This phase of the subject should be correlated with the work of the Art department. Illustrations showing good colour combinations, good designs and materials suitable for certain purposes, will be found very helpful.

Then it seems to me that the ethical aspect of this work should be emphasized, especially in our High Schools. We hear a good deal about the dishonesty of some manufacturers and merchants. Should we not endeavour to show the girls that some women are, in a measure, responsible for dishonest advertising as well as for dishonest selling. They are not willing to pay the price for pure articles but rush to the bargain counter in order to get so-called cheap materials. Through their craving for cheap goods are they not indirectly responsible for conditions of labour? We should lead the girls to see that if a ready-made garment is being sold for the mere cost of the material it may represent the life blood of some poor girl. Intelligent women must surely realize their responsibility in buying. Would not a thoughtful presentation of these points tend to open the girls' minds to a new field of



thought and broaden their sympathies? It will readily be seen how the ethical aspect of this subject has an important bearing on certain social problems of the day such as child labour, hours of labour, wages, conditions of labour, factory inspection, etc.

Before closing this subject I should like to refer briefly to legislation regarding textiles. The Inland Revenue Department of our Federal Government does not investigate textiles at all, with the exception of doing occasional work for the Department of Militia and Defence. The only Government institution which does any extensive work along this line is the Forest Products Laboratories, Montreal, under the Department of the Interior. So in Canada we have no pure textile laws and no honest labelling of goods as they have in England. In Ontario we have a Factory Act which provides for the protection of all persons employed in factories. No child under fourteen years of age shall be employed in a clothing factory and no young girl or woman shall be employed for more than ten hours in one day. When any garment or article is found by the inspectors to be made under unclean or unhealthy conditions he shall seize and impound the same and affix thereto a label bearing the word "unsanitary" printed on a tag not less than four inches in length; and shall immediately notify the local board of health, whose duty it shall be to disinfect it and thereupon remove such label.

In conclusion I should like to quote Ruskin again. He says: "Learn the sound qualities of all useful stuffs and make everything of the best you can get, whatever its price, and then every day make some little piece of useful clothing sewn with your own fingers as beautifully as it can be stitched and embroider it or otherwise beautify it moderately with fine needlework, such as a girl is fond of having done." Has not Ruskin set a high standard before us? It may not always be possible to carry this out but should we not keep the ideal in mind? Surely the girl who makes a thorough study of this subject, "Textiles and Clothing," will develop into a better homemaker with broader sympathies for her fellow beings and a greater appreciation of the value of honest labour and the respect to which it is entitled?

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## PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE . SECTION

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### *THE RELATION OF PHYSICAL TO THE MENTAL WITH THE CONSEQUENT MENTAL INFLUENCE.*

SEYMOUR W. COLLINGS, PHYSICAL DIRECTOR, TORONTO  
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The theory and practice of Physical Training, as in any other department of education, must be adapted to the age, to the degree of civilization and the conditions of life which they aim to meet. It is the general agreement among scholars that each individual in coming to adult life must pass through stages of development corresponding to the development of the race from its earliest forms. This view of human origin puts emphasis upon Physical Training, for it has been through physical struggle of various kinds that the body as well as the mind has come to its present structure and function. The cultivation of the body is then a necessary antecedent which must accompany and be basal to all development of mind and character.

Among animals and among savages this training of the body is carried on in an unconscious way by means of the natural plays and sports of each species. The conditions surrounding our forefathers differed widely from the conditions existing to-day in a great manufacturing and commercial city. With the advancement of civilized life we are seeing a new condition. We are compelling children to go to school earlier and earlier in life, and at school they must sit still. They must go to school for more and more months of each year, and for an increased number of years, so that the natural activity of childhood is being materially lessened. Take the life of many of our school children. They get up in the morning, have a hurried breakfast, rush off to school often insufficiently fed and clothed. The child is kept at school until three or four o'clock and in many instances lives far away from school and has no chance for a good warm meal in the middle of the day such as a growing child ought to have. Later comes music practice or the developing of other accomplishments.

We are finding with alarming rapidity that under such conditions individuals are coming to adult life with inferior bodies, and deficient vigor, as well as lack of control which is everyone's right. Coincident with this increase in school life and the consequent lack of physical exercise is a growth of city life.

The city life has less opportunity for muscular exercise than does country life. We are taking away the natural playgrounds of children so that not only are we lessening their natural exercise by putting them in school but when they are out of school they do not have the opportunity for play and exercise that they used to have and should have. Besides this the great economic condition causes vast numbers of our boys to go into various business pursuits outside of school periods in order to help keep their homes, here again is a great increase in the neural expenditure.

For these reasons, as well as others, it makes it necessary for us to give particular attention to the development of the body, not as an end in itself, but in order that it may furnish the good blood, and the healthy blood vessels that are indispensable to the health and strength of the nerves and the brain.

Physical Training has an important influence on the development and specialization of the brain cells. There are in the brain certain centres or masses of brain matter which preside over co-ordinated movements of all kinds. These centres begin life when the child learns to stand, to walk, to talk, as new movements are attempted new centres become active, certain nerve impulses become more or less habitual and thus new nerve paths are opened up and established and the connections between the centres in different parts of the brain become increasingly well defined and co-related. It has been found that within reasonable limits the greater the scope of the physical education the more complex and highly specialized and developed do the centres become.

The general tone and condition of the whole nervous system is also benefited in common with the rest of the body. It must not be forgotten that the improved quality of the muscular work, which always results from suitable physical training is due even more to the greater efficiency of the nerve centres themselves. Actions which appear to be the most simple depend in fact upon an extremely complex nervous and muscular mechanism and one of the objects of training is to ensure that every action is carried out with as little fatigue and dissipation of energy as possible.

Physical exercises and games should not be looked upon as distinct from other forms of education so intimate is the connection of one organ of the body with each and all of the others, so dependent is the brain upon the general activity of the body and *vice-versa* that one cannot possibly speak of physical education in opposition or apart from the acquiring of knowledge. This intimate connection between physical and intellectual is well seen in all forms and to watch a class engaged in any kind of work convinces one at once of the impossibility of splitting up education into compartments. It is clearly seen that exercise is of great benefit to the body as a whole, that mental as well as physical processes are involved at every step.

Exercise has so many points of contact with education. It is so intricately related to mental training that the progressive educationalist is now compelled to study the bearing on it.

Under proper physical training the child unconsciously acquires habits of discipline and order, learns to respond cheerfully and promptly to the word of command together with the qualities of alertness, decision, concentration and perfect control of brain over body. In learning new exercises its memory is strengthened, as the exercises become more advanced there is an increasing demand on the powers of concentration and determination. The constant call for self control and self restraint, for co-operation and harmonious working with others, needed for performing exercises and for playing organized games, help to foster unselfishness and promote a public spirit which is valuable in after life.

Right taught physical training should serve as a healthy outlet for the emotions, while the natural power of expressing thought, feeling and ideas of bodily movement is encouraged and brought out.

The great stress laid on physical training is not to make the body first. The brain and the mind must ever be supreme. But the million-fold cells of brain and nerve can be properly nourished to do their work only by, and through a healthy body. The sole source of the mature nerve cell in the brain of the adult is the undeveloped cell element present at birth. A rightly ordered educational system must grow out of the physiological requirements of the nervous system. It is not the nervous energy a child has that determines what it can do but the control of the nervous discharge.

## TO WHAT EXTENT IS THE PHYSICAL RESPONSIBLE FOR THE RETARDATION OF PUPILS.

The question as to what extent the physical is responsible for the retardation of pupils is one that is hard to answer, yet there are certain recognized physical conditions that have been recognized as directly causing the condition that we recognize in school life as mental dullness and backwardness, and that when removed the backward child has become normal and able to carry on regular class work, also that many backward children have been enabled under proper physical training to return to their regular classes and complete a fairly satisfactory school course.

It is during the early years of school life that the condition known as dullness, backwardness, develops sufficiently to be capable of definite diagnosis. It is there also that the first steps can be taken to correct mental sluggishness and to train the neuromuscular system of the child.

The backward child is usually much older and bigger than the children of the same class, usually remaining two or three terms in the one class and sometimes promoted only when desks and seats of the room have become too small for them. Any child that is not able to profit by the ordinary methods of instruction given to the other children of his age should be considered backward, and all such cases should be carefully observed, and a record of their habits and mental characteristics should be made in co-operation with the medical inspector. In Springfield, Mass., a Municipal Psychological Laboratory is carried on two afternoons a week under the direction of Dr. Dawson, of Hartford, to which all the backward children are sent and given a test to find out what is the matter. A thorough examination is made of the general vitality, lung capacity, heart action, throat, special senses, teeth, deformities if any, also the nervous condition, motor control, steadiness and emotional qualities.

Adenoid growths where found should be removed, the removal of these remediable obstructions is frequently sufficient to permit the backward child rapidly to regain his normal class standing. Sometimes when a child is making little progress, examination will show *low vitality*, or defective eyesight, bad teeth, or a throat choked up with enlarged tonsils or other interferences with breathing in the throat or nose. Medical attention will usually



give them a chance to show that their mind and dispositions are perfectly sound.

Physical weakness, following severe illness or other curable conditions that may not have been recognized by the parent or family physician, may cause mental dullness. Again, certain children in good physical health *develop slowly* at certain stages afterwards catching up with their fellows. This may be due to a period of *rapid growth*, and should be carefully distinguished from the more serious conditions.

The deplorable physique in many of our school children has attracted little or no particular attention. These conditions of physique are the result of causes capable of removal, and therefore ought to be removed. Children who during their early youth do not obtain health and body education seldom attain it. Oftentimes nerve difficulties cause mental incapacity (example eye strain). This causes a waste of nervous force which seriously interferes with structural growth and establishment of normal functions.

The mind and body are so closely inter-related for the intellect to realize its best when the activities are disturbed by pathological conditions. Physiological derangement is an exhaustive drain upon the energy needed for healthy cerebration and if prolonged is liable to arrest mental growth.

I know of nothing that is a greater blessing to the children, that would do so much to produce and maintain physical and mental health, so essential to our best development than well directed physical training, which means a vigorous body, quickened and disciplined mind and children saved from misery and backwardness.

THE CHIEF PURPOSE OF PHYSICAL EXERCISE IN OUR SCHOOLS  
AND IS THE COURSE PRESCRIBED AND FOLLOWED THE BEST  
TO SECURE THE DESIRED AIM.

The chief purpose and aim of physical exercise in our schools should be to promote organic vigour and power, the proper functioning of all the organs of the body, to invigorate the weak, also to get more activity into the school period. This implies the arousing of interest, and the giving of the information necessary for an intelligent care of the health. Also strength and

endurance are needed and the military idea may be sub-ordinated but it should not be lost sight of entirely since nations like individuals sometimes have to fight for the defence of their country as in the present great struggle. Strength is needed also, to play a man's part in life on account of the many muscle saving devices which have been introduced into the shop and office, most of them increasing the neural expenditure while decreasing the muscular work. This resulting in a physical degeneration of man's muscular and nervous force. The average city boys lack organic capacity and vigour for hard mental or physical work.

We must give the pupils a living interest in some form of active physical exercise. Such an interest will greatly influence their after life by removing them from many temptations in their youth and by tending to lure them out of doors in later life.

In our schools at the present time we are using the syllabus of physical exercises for schools, published by the Executive Council, Strathcona Trust. The course prescribed gives an excellent outline and type of exercises to be used, the exercises are carefully prepared, well balanced series of exercises designed to produce a fine condition of harmonious development, yet they are as a rule, in themselves tiresome and uninteresting. It is a strain even on the teachers to keep doing something uninteresting day after day, in hope of some benefit to be derived, ultimately, imagine how tiresome that sort of thing must be to pupils. To stand in rows on the floor and to go through certain movements prescribed by the teacher, with probably not the least idea of a reason for any of them doing them, simply because the teacher says so. Is it any wonder that most physical training lessons are listless, lifeless, performances except where the teacher is unusually energetic and expends a great deal of energy in arousing the pupils. I know that in some schools very good work is done, but it has been due to the teacher taking an interest in the pupils. Is it any wonder that many of the boys and girls seek all manner of excuses for getting out of the work.

I have watched some classes marched under strict discipline out to the school yard, lined up in set order, put through a few minutes of marching, then a few minutes of response work in which they executed new and complicated movements to order, then they had a few minutes of rhythmic work in which they

performed in unison various movements previously learned. All or most of this work required close attention and concentration to understand and carry out, failing in this they earned the sharp reproof of the teacher.

Where is the recreation, the relaxation? When it is realized that in all of this work the pupils had not exerted themselves any more than they could help, that they had not put into a single movement any more energy than the watchful eye of the teacher seemed to demand, you will easily see we are getting little more than mental work and a poor attempt at physical exercise.

Often the physical work is taken by a teacher under conditions which are anything but good, children line up with street clothes on, some with heavy sweater coats in a room 70-72 deg., and one can imagine what good a child would receive from that kind of exercise. If the pupil puts any effort into the work the body soon begins to perspire and the pupil goes back to the class room to sit for a few hours or the rest of the day in wet, clammy clothing, sometimes with an odour about them that is not at all pleasant, and in many cases not even having time to wash the face and hands. How can exercise benefit under such conditions?

That the Board of Education is realizing the value of physical work and giving it its right place in the school curriculum is very evident by the various gymnasiums being erected in different schools.

The great tendency of teachers following the outline suggested by the text is toward giving too much command work, thus making the amount of memory work and attention demanded from the pupil the maximum instead of a minimum. The whole trend of the work should be toward the hygienic and recreative type, good group games and athletics, not athletics to foster representative teams, far from that, but games that will include the whole school, thus giving everyone an opportunity to play and develop.

It seems to me that we are not giving enough time to physical exercise in relation to the other studies and in many cases where time is given it is too short to accomplish very much. Every pupil should have proper physical activity for at least one hour a day. This would necessitate a gymnasium or room fitted up

for such in every school and a physical director. Some of our boys and girls get that amount but the vast majority do not. Again in our schools a great deal of time is taken up with representative teams who carry the honour of the school on their shoulders, when the honour of the school should depend on the attainment of all. More time should be spent on seeing that each boy and girl engaged in some kind of organized physical activity, not only the larger pupils but the smaller ones as well.

In schools where the pupils are of different sizes they should be grouped according to physiological growth or weight and then good wholesome games arranged and schedules run off. This gives the pupils a real objective, something that they are interested in and not something that is forced upon them.

Again the recess periods might be spent to a better advantage instead of letting the whole school run wild as they do in many places. A programme could be arranged whereby only enough classes go to the play-ground at a time and an opportunity given for all to engage in a definite programme of athletics or group games. In a large school, such as this, recess is not used as a recreation period or a time for getting a little fresh air, but to go from class room to class room or wander up and down the halls.

In our city schools where so many children carry their lunch a special programme could be arranged whereby games could be run off. In this way, many of the pupils in school could be placed in some form of physical activity and not go through life, as many do, not knowing how to play the ordinary games. It should be possible that every child capable of taking part in games should engage in some form of recreation outside of the regular class period of exercise.

Besides the recess, noon and the regular exercise period there is a great need, especially among the smaller pupils, for a few minutes of exercise between the actual class periods. Think of the pupils sitting in a class room for five hours a day either engaged in writing or some form of work which brings the body in a cramped position. True, they have short periods of rest, but how woefully short in the average school room. I have gone into class rooms after a class period and found the pupils listless, air anything but pleasant, to sit still for thirty or forty minutes is a task for a growing boy or girl, a few minutes of proper



exercise with the windows open would soon promote a good circulation, pupils would be mentally brightened and able to do better work, more than making up for the lost time.

There are many children in our schools who need more physical activity than others, also many of the backward pupils would benefit by a little more exercise. In order to find out the needs of the pupils it is necessary that they have a physical examination each fall. A card should be kept of their name, age, height, weight and any remarks as to condition. In this way one gets to know the pupils and can often advise and help them. It is surprising the great interest that is displayed by the pupils over their height and weight. These simple measurements may be used in the arranging of the groups for games.

Along with the physical exercise should come the bath, there is nothing that puts life into anyone like a good bath or swim after vigorous exercise or games. The school swimming tank and showers are yet an unknown necessity to the average school child, and yet, there is no doubt that it should be looked upon as part of the school equipment and part of the physical training. I might say that there is no part of the physical work in this school that is enjoyed more by the pupils than the bathing facilities. I venture to say that one-half of our boys in school cannot swim in spite of the free rides to the island. Baths and showers are needed to fulfil at least three main features:—

1. It increases the child's self respect, its moral tone uplifted, its health and general welfare improved by being kept clean, sweet and wholesome, without necessary facilities it is impossible to obtain the best results.

2. It invigorates the body and helps to maintain and increase the mental and physical health.

3. It provides a valuable means of exercise and to teach swimming and life saving.

The establishment of better bathing and physical facilities would seem, therefore, to be one which should receive very close and earnest attention in the carrying out of the wider and broader interpretation of the meaning of education.

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*MEDICAL INSPECTION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*

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The proverbs of every race and country are a national possession, the heritage of succeeding generations. Even the fallacious are quoted on all sides with apparent reverence. Others containing germs of truth are quoted but neglected. Of such a kind is the maxim that "Prevention is better than cure." It is on everyone's lips almost from childhood, but its principle—remarkably true—is ignored by all sorts and conditions, the rich and the poor, the educated and the ignorant. "Medicine," wrote Plato more than two thousand years ago, "is the science of health." To-day it is popularly regarded as the science of disease. But had the truth of Plato's dictum been recognized, some Government department of preventive medicine would long ago have been established in our midst.

In the schools of ancient Greece, at least one aspect of school hygiene, namely, physical education, was recognized as a necessary means of developing the ideal citizen—the true function of education. The training of the body was regarded as of equal importance with the training of the mind. In any rational and well balanced system of education, the child's whole being is cared for, the physical, intellectual, and moral natures are trained and cultivated.

From the time of ancient Greece until the close of the nineteenth century, there is no record of interest in educational hygiene. It is only now, in the twentieth century, that in nearly every country of the world there has been an awakening followed by a steady development. Modern civilization is again beginning to approximate the system which obtained in Greece, when a national school which trained the mind only and neglected the body of the pupil was an inconceivable institution.

Had the importance of preventive measures been more thoroughly realized, there would have been less delay both in the recognition of the necessity for, and in the institution of, medical inspection.

Routine medical inspection of children will neither prevent nor materially alter the course of outbreaks of epidemic disease. The school is by no means such an exclusive centre for the dissemination of acute infectious diseases as is generally assumed. It should rather be regarded as a convenient place for studying the incidence of these diseases and for devising new methods for controlling their spread. Although the majority of schools are not hot-beds of infection, nor do the majority of schools show a proportion of degenerates or underfed children, or children suffering from infectious disease, every school does contain a percentage of children suffering from unrecognized defects.

The activity of the smaller countries is notable. Sweden was the first country to adopt a scientific system of physical training in 1813. This system of physical training, or some modification of it, is still regarded by many as the best. The Swedish Government in 1840 appointed school doctors in some of the training colleges, and in 1863 prescribed duties for school physicians in secondary schools. Medical supervision of primary schools was inaugurated in 1895.

Russia: In 1871 Russia made provision for medical inspection. The Minister of Education has a medical department at his service.

Germany: In 1883 the first school doctor in Germany was appointed at Frankfort-am-Main. There is no power of compulsion. The work in Germany is very thorough, and one of the aims of administration is to "reduce as far as possible the number of children allotted to each school physician, with the object of securing more personal work."

Austria-Hungary: In Austria-Hungary the office of school physician was created in 1885, and two years later a number of physicians with specified duties were appointed for the secondary schools.

France: In 1886, medical inspection of schools in France was instituted for all departments.

Norway: The history of medical inspection in Norway presents a model of orderly and progressive legislation. In 1885, some localities had appointed school physicians. In 1889, permissive regulations were passed, empowering local authorities to appoint health inspectors. In 1891, these regulations were

made compulsory. Although the population of Norway is so scattered that ten per cent. of the children walk two and one-half miles or more to school, every school has a medical officer.

Argentina: In 1888 the Argentina Republic entrusted the medical supervision of primary schools to a school medical board.

Switzerland: In 1898 the Swiss Federal Government recommended the medical examination of all children upon their first admission to school.

Japan: In 1898, in Japan, the Minister of Education ordered the appointment of school doctors at every public school.

Victoria, New South Wales and Tasmania have introduced a system of medical inspection.

England: The Education Act of 1870 established the board school and made education compulsory, but educational authorities were slow to apprehend the value of medical advice and assistance.

"It is an ill wind that blows nobody good." The South African war which stirred the colonies to join the Motherland in her struggle with the Boers, also opened the eyes of the British Government to an unsuspected and greater danger at the very heart of the nation. Of the recruits who offered themselves for service in the war, from 60 to 75 per cent. failed to measure up to the army standard and were rejected as unfit. This was especially alarming since the army standard had already been lowered four times since 1845.

The movement in favour of medical supervision in education culminated in the Education Bill of 1907 which made provision for health inspection in the following terms: "The power and duties of a local education authority under Part III of the Education Act shall include: The duty to provide for the medical inspection of school children immediately before, or at the time, or as soon as possible after, their admission to a public elementary school, and on such other occasions as the Boards of Education direct, and the power to make such arrangements as may be sanctioned by the Board of Education for attending to the health and physical condition of the children in public elementary schools." It is thus incumbent on the educational authorities in England to make systematic investigation of the health of school children, and they also have the power of, at least, attempting



to insure that the health of the children shall be of such a standard that they may profit by the education provided for them.

**United States:** In the United States the chief aim of medical inspection has been directed towards the prevention of infectious and contagious disease. Much useful work has been done in this direction by various municipalities, but very little has been accomplished with regard to the real problems of school hygiene, except in Boston, where a director of school hygiene was appointed as early as 1891. In the following year, medical inspectors were first appointed for the prevention of contagious disease, next, the problem of school sanitation was considered, and then came the physical condition of all school children, followed by the scientific study of child life and of problems of school hygiene. This evolution extended over a period of sixteen years, and now a special department of school hygiene has been established, with instructors in military drill and in physical training and athletics, playground teachers, nurses and a medical inspector of special classes.

Coming now to our own country, we find that in all the provinces a beginning has been made. Public interest is being gradually awakened and the medical profession generally advocates increased attention to the physical condition of the pupils in our schools.

**British Columbia:** In the year 1910, the Legislature of British Columbia passed an act regarding the medical inspection of schools. It is a compulsory act.

**Alberta:** Provision was made in 1909 by the Alberta Legislature for the employment of medical officers in town and city schools. Edmonton and Calgary have begun this work.

**Saskatchewan:** In Regina, Moose Jaw and Saskatoon medical inspection has been established.

**Manitoba:** Winnipeg has a well organized system of inspection.

**Quebec:** Fully organized medical inspection of schools exists in the City of Montreal, where the work is under the authority of the City Council, and is conducted by a medical inspector and his staff. In Westmount, Lachine, and Three Rivers medical inspection of schools is also being carried out.

**New Brunswick:** The City of St. John has taken up medical inspection for the schools.

Nova Scotia: In the City of Halifax, the School Board has appointed two medical men as inspectors. In Amherst a very thorough and well organized system has been put into operation.

Ontario: The City of Toronto was the first place in Ontario to introduce medical inspection. Medical inspection was begun in the Toronto public schools by the Board of Education early in 1910. In Niagara Falls, St. Catharines, London, Hamilton, Brantford, and a score of other places the work is being carried on.

The Department of Education issued permissive regulations governing medical, dental, and nursing inspection of public schools in 1914. The first clause of the regulations is as follows:

"Where provision has been made for free medical treatment of the pupils whose parents or guardians are unable to pay therefor, one School Board or a number of School Boards acting either by themselves or in conjunction with other local organizations approved for this purpose by the Minister, may by resolution adopt a system of school medical inspection."

The Department of Education in these regulations makes provision for each school individually. Provision is also made for a number of schools collectively. The school is established as a social and public health agency. The regulations are broad enough to include every other social or health agency which wishes to co-operate with the School Board with the approval of the Minister of Education.

The argument in favour of medical inspection of schools lies in the fact that in a large number of school children there are physical and mental conditions which are injurious to health and form a serious handicap in their education, or may constitute a menace to the health of their classmates. Many children have conditions at present overlooked by both the teachers and parents which can be prevented or corrected. Others are suffering from diseases, the serious nature and consequences of which no one but a medical man can recognize. Medical inspection is necessary because some parents are ignorant. It is only a means to an end, and the end is the education or enlightenment of the people in health matters. The most superficial physical examination at school undoubtedly tends to prevent much actual ill health, owing to the resultant discovery in its early stages, as well as many simple ailments which might ultimately become serious. The

responsibility of routine medical inspection rests with the State. If it is worth while to make every effort to increase the daily attendance of a school one per cent.—and this irrespective of whether the children are capable of benefiting from their education or not—can there be any doubt of the substantial advantages ensured by transforming ten per cent. or more of ailing and backward children into receptive children of ordinary intelligence, worthy of the time and trouble which the teachers spend on them?

The school is the nursery of the nation and, by reason of the ignorance of parents, all aspects of the whole question should be treated as educational problems. Children must be taught how to live healthy and cleanly lives. Ignorance can only be conquered by sympathetic, tactful education, which is the function of the school. It has been said that if all parents had an intelligent knowledge of hygiene, medical inspection of schools would be unnecessary, for all defects would have been discovered at home. But it is too plainly evident that ignorance is the rule, and that even in the families of intelligent people, serious disabilities in children pass unnoticed, and minor deformities are frequently overlooked by parents, who are by no means careless or indifferent to their children's welfare. It is to the undoubted advantage of both parents and children that any defects should be discovered as soon as possible, and that in the cases of weakly children, or those handicapped in any way, some modification of the educational course should be instituted. It is no less clear that in the interests of the strong and healthy this elimination should take place, for it is not fair that they should be delayed in their progress by the drag of their less capable classmates. If there is any doubt as to the existence of these defects it can best be set at rest by a study of the results of medical inspection in various centres. Clean and healthy children have also a right to be protected from the results of contact with their dirty and neglected classmates. And the great question of the day, the question of tuberculous infection, must not be lost sight of. Evidence is rapidly accumulating that it is especially during childhood and school life that the tuberculous seed finds a nidus. The school doctor cannot abolish all this ignorance and neglect, nor will he educate all the parents at once, but in the course of a few years a vast improvement will be noticeable if an adequate

system is introduced. The teacher cannot do justice to any individual child without such knowledge of its mental, moral and physical development as can scarcely be acquired without the doctor's help. And though the teacher may be able to form an adequate judgment of the child's general capacity, yet every teacher will recall many a difficult case in which he would have been glad of the advice of a school doctor interested in the study of child life. Medical inspection of schools should have been the first step in any compulsory system of State education. The past generation of educationalists had few ideas beyond teaching reading, writing and arithmetic to all and training the more intelligent children to win scholarships. There was no idea of educating each child to play his part as a citizen of the State. In consequence the one essential step was overlooked, and educational progress has been conducted on wrong lines for many years.

The scope of medical supervision should include the school building, its construction and architecture, the healthfulness of its site, its ventilation, illumination, and the methods used in keeping it clean and free from dust, its furniture, cloak rooms, fire escapes, sanitary conveniences, gymnasium, baths and playgrounds. To be complete, medical inspection should also include the examination of the teacher.

The school doctor should be tactful and considerate in his relations with the teaching staff. Discipline requires that the teacher's position be paramount. In the work of examination and supervision the school doctor should be tactful and show consideration for the feelings and even the prejudices of the parents. It is fairly evident that in addition to medical qualifications a school doctor should have some acquaintance with educational problems and with the general routine of the school teacher's work, and one of the advantages which we have in Canada lies in the fact that a very large proportion of Canadian physicians have at one time been teachers in the public schools.

The school nurse forms the connecting link between the home and the school on the one side, and the home and the hospital or other medical agency on the other. She enables the child to stay at school or to get back to school in the shortest possible time.



In any system of medical inspection the teacher must necessarily be a very important factor. The teacher has the child under observation the larger part of its school life. School medical inspection is not a passing fad introduced to add to your already overburdened curriculum but comes rather as a leavening agent to make all your school problems lighter. Personally I do not believe that criticism or opposition from the individual teacher can hinder the progress of this useful work; but I do know that as small a part of your time as five minutes daily will make our system of medical inspection a success.

Having adopted the principle of compulsory education, and undertaken the expense of it, the public has a right to demand the best results. It is much to be desired that some degree of compulsion could be imported into our system of school hygiene. And why should not this be tolerated? The law of the land has already said to the parent in compulsory education, "Thy child must not grow up in ignorance." When will it say to the ignorant, apathetic or penurious parent, "Thy child shall not grow up in disease if that disease is remediable?" At present while the responsibility devolves upon the parent as soon as he is notified by the school doctor of any ailment or defect in his child, the community or State should see that this responsibility is met.

One can readily see that medical inspection has far-reaching social, economic and moral phases. It is an attempt to make sanitation universal, to eliminate preventable disease, to perfect the social and individual health status. It means increased human efficiency, greater earning capacity, a normal social life and a better physical foundation for sound social and spiritual growth. It indicates that society is attempting to meet its social responsibility by protecting the whole of human kind from the menace of its defective members. It recognizes that one of the keenest socio-sanitary indices of a community's life is the care which it takes of its future citizens.

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## REFORMED SPELLING SECTION

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### *THE PROGRESS OF THE YEAR IN SPELLING REFORM.*

BY JOHN DEARNESS.

*In Schools and Colleges.*—South of the boundary line the year just past has been the most successful one in the history of the movement to improve the spelling of our language. Official measures have been taken towards the introduction of simplified spelling in the public schools of three of the States. In 146 of the colleges, normal schools and universities, including 14 state universities, affecting in the aggregate the practice of fully 8,000 instructors and over 100,000 students spelling reform to some extent has been officially sanctioned.

*The Newspapers.*—Stability to the advances thus made will be given by the newspapers and periodicals of which there are now no less than 250 in the United States and Canada with an estimated circulation of nearly 12,000,000 which are using at least the "first list" of simplifications. It is also important enough to note that the last annual conference of Agricultural College Editors unanimously favored the use of the "300 word" list in the volume of its Proceedings and in all the station and college publications.

The propaganda that is behind these gratifying results is directed from New York by the Simplified Spelling Board of the English-speaking peoples.

*Overseas.*—The war has delayed the execution of the plans of the British Society. The petition for a Royal Commission, for example, has not yet been presented to the British Premier. It continues to receive signatures and to reveal more clearly the wide-spread feeling among open-minded scholars in favor of a more scientific spelling of our language. I do not know how many Canadian signatures it has received; the last packet that I had

the honor to transmit bore the names of ninety-eight well-known educators including twenty-one school-inspectors, high-school principals and normal-school teachers. In a list of signers of international reputation which I received from the British Secretary some time ago a few of the names were those of the late Sir Sandford Fleming, Prof. David Starr Jordan, H. G. Wells, the author, Principal Sir Donald MacAlister of Glasgow University, Dr. James L. Hughes, Rt. Rev. Bishop Welldon, all the members of the Victoria Education Department, Vice-Chancellors of Leeds and Aberdeen Universities and directing officers of scientific societies and principals of important schools in Great Britain as well as that of the President of the British National Union of Teachers, numerically the largest association of teachers in the Empire.

A year or two ago the Society published a First Reader in fonetic spelling. Children using this Reader for ten months and then spending four months in transitional studies were shown to be fully abreast in every way with others who had spent nineteen months with books printed in the old spelling. That is a saving of fully five months in two terms of school-work.

*Something That We can do Here.*—We can continue to direct attention to the absurdities of our present spelling by getting the subject of Spelling Reform on the programs of teachers' institutes, debating and literary societies and many of the church organizations. We can adopt in our own practice approved simplifications and express commendation of correspondents and publishers who show courage to apply reason and common sense to their spelling practice. Another way is to get one's signature on the petition for a Royal Commission to inquire into the need for, the practicability of, and the best means of securing a more rational English spelling.

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*WHAT THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE  
UNITED STATES ARE DOING FOR THE  
BETTERMENT OF SPELLING.*

BY DR. D. C. CROISSANT.

(Synopsis.)

The present movement to reform English spelling in the United States began in 1875, but it is only recently that the effort has been effectively organized. Within the last few years there has been a definite effort to enlist the official cooperation of educational institutions and organizations of teachers, of scientific bodies, and of the public press. These enthusiastic efforts, particularly during the last two years, have been unexpectedly successful.

During the last two years the Simplified Spelling Board has obtained the support and cooperation of 150 institutions of higher learning in the United States and Canada. Among these are 41 state universities, agricultural colleges, and normal schools, the others being privately endowed institutions. In addition to these there are 119 colleges and universities which approve of the movement to the extent that they will permit their students to use simplified spelling, although the institutions themselves have not yet begun to employ it. These incorporate a very important body of established and permanent institutions, which give stability and authority to the movement.

Not less important than these, but having a less permanent and established character are the numbers of educational associations which have formally approved of the movement and have begun the use of some of the simpler forms of spelling. This class includes such organizations as the Modern Language Association of America, the National Education Association, the state teachers' associations of 20 states, and the Temperance Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education in increasing numbers are lending their authority to the movement and are including statements of the aims and proposals of the



Simplified Spelling Board in the official courses of study, and are even incorporating many of the recommendations in the spelling lessons.

Cooperating with these educational agencies are the publications of the various learned societies, such as the *Educational Review*, the publications of the Modern Language Association, *Modern Language Notes*, the *Catholic Register*, and the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*. Altogether there are 250 newspapers and other periodicals, with a combined circulation of 12,000,000, which are using simplified spelling to a greater or less degree. In July, 1914, there were only 38 such periodicals, so that it will be seen that the growth within the last two years indicates a surprising vitality in the movement at the present time.

The present prospects are that the impulse that the movement now has will have a cumulative effect, and it may be confidently predicted that the dreams of spelling reformers will be realized in the not very distant future.

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*ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE.*

BY DR. DEWITT C. CROISSANT, PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, KANSAS  
STATE UNIVERSITY, FIELD SECRETARY, SIMPLIFIED  
SPELLING BOARD, NEW YORK CITY.

This period of world struggle, in which there is so much destruction of material welth as wel as of lives, wil leave the world in a condition in which there wil necessarily be a new attitude toward the ordering of our lives and the use of our resources. There wil be an inevitable readjustment in which every human agency for efficiency and civilization must be made use of. This means that our language must be considered both as an efficient means of communication and as a medium for the spred of Anglo-Saxon civilization, its political, social, ethical, and religius ideals. The hope of the world lies in the wider acceptance of the principles of liberty, of justis, and of the brotherhood of man, which involv the right of the weak to liv and to prosper without compulsory limitation by the strong. The highest conception of liberty, of justis, of the rights of the weak is found in our Anglo-Saxon ideals; and it is not for ourselves alone, but for the benefit of humanity, that we should use every instrument in our power to spred them. The most important instrument is our language, by which we may communicate these ideals to those who do not understand them.

Mr. Brander Matthews, in his volume of essays entitled *Parts of Speech*, givs some interesting facts respecting the dominance of various languages. He shows that for fifteen centuries Latin was the language of diplomacy, of the Church, of letters, of filosofy, of science, and even as late as the time of Bacon and of Milton it was very largely the international medium of communication in everything but the lighter forms of literature. By the 17th Century, French had supplanted Latin and was the language of diplomacy and of the Courts of Europe. But by the end of the 19th Century this supremacy had disappeard. Earlier in the century, because of the progress in science and scolarship, in which Germany playd such an important part, the German language became indispensible to the man who would kno the advances in regard to the materialistic side of the life of the

world. It is to be determined what language is to be the means of international communication in the future.

This is a question which is not settled by the peculiar fitness of the language alone, but is dependent upon the political and commercial position of the people who speak this language as their native tongue. For the last five centuries the number of those who speak English has been increasing in a much more rapid proportion than the number of those who speak any other tongue, except Russian, which now leads in point of numbers. There are now three times as many whose language is English as there are those who speak French, and it is spoken by more people than French and German combined. Russian has increased since the 16th Century, when it stood fourth among European peoples, until at the present time it leads them all. This would indicate, on a material basis, that, if not English, Russian will be the coming world language. The development of English as a world language depends not only on its inherent qualities as a mode of speech, but will also depend on the development of the English-speaking nations, their material supremacy, their cohesion, and their ability to enforce their spiritual and social ideals.

Does this imply that the Italian, the Spaniard, and the Russian shall give up his own vernacular and adopt English as the ordinary means of communication? This is manifestly impossible, and even questionably desirable. Every man will continue to have his native language, but when he learns a second language, that language should be English.

Language is fundamentally a means of communication, and was created to supply a demand. The widespread use of any particular tongue must be based upon a natural need. Not only is there this need in regard to English for commercial and international relations, but in the world of ideals there is a very definite and important function that our tongue can fulfill in the spread of the ideals and practices of our Anglo-Saxon civilization.

The superiority of Germany of thirty or forty years ago in the realm of science and scholarship, which made a knowledge of German necessary to workers in those fields has been rapidly decreasing since the complete dominance of Bismarckian ideals in the German Empire; and the overthrow of German idealism by Prussian materialism has lost for Germany its opportunity to play an

important part in making the world a better place to live in. In the world of science, law, and scholarship, there has been during the last generation a very notisable deterioration on the part of the German universities, to which we formerly went for such things. Even in the study of the English language itself it was formerly necessary for the English scolar to study in the German university. This is no longer tru, for German scholarship has gradually tended to become mecanical and to put the emfasis on method rather than on the thing itself. At the same time British and American scholarship has been improved and is now recognized as world wide and supreme in the field in which German scholarship formerly dominated. In our religius and filosofical thought, as wel as in our literature and scolarship, English has been revitalized.

There always has been a necessity for the educated man to know something more than his own language. Queen Elizabeth knew Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. Bacon, douting the permanence of the English language, translated some of his works into Latin, so that they might not be lost to posterity. This we kno to hav been unnecessary, but the problem still exists of making our language efficient to such an extent that in the struggle between the varius nations and their concept of right, English shal not labor under a disadvantage.

The advantage to any people in having its language universally used is indirect. It wil aid in the spred of political power, but on the other hand the spred of language depends on political power itself. It aids in the spred of commercial power, but the spred of the language depends on the commercial supremacy of the people. On the other hand a nation or a people cannot enforce its literature, and its social, religius, commercial, and political ideals unless it can easily communicate these ideals to others. It may attain a mesure of influence, but it cannot dominate unless its language is known.

What ar the special advantages in having English as a world language? "It means that the words ritten in our language, expressing our thoughts and aims, will be more widely red and better understood; it means the ever increasing influence of our journalists, novelists, and dramatists, of our men of learning and our men of practical genius".



In the first place there is the development of the commercial supremacy of the Anglo-Saxon. Lord Bryce at the University of London, in January, 1914, gave the following testimony in respect to this: "A few months ago in Japan, where, as all over the Farther East, English is beginning to become the language of commerce, some Japanese friends deplored to me the difficulties our spelling throws in the way of their efforts to spread the use of our language, and asked whether we were never going to reform it. Merely as a 'business proposition' such a reform would be worth a vast deal to British trade."

But this is much less important in the history of the world than the spread of our civilization. We are no longer merely citizens of England, Canada, the United States, or Russia, but whether we desire it or not, we are compelled by the present complex social structure to be citizens of the world. We can no longer live for ourselves alone, for whatever affects one people affects all, and we Anglo-Saxons have a definite mission in the world in the promulgation of our ideals of liberty and justice. Will it be better for humanity to read Nietzsche and Trietzschke, or to be inspired by the great English Christian philosophers, such as Green? Will the world be better by following the political ideals of Bismark or of Gladstone? The time has come when the world must decide whether the democratic ideals of Britain, of the United States, of France shall prevail, or whether the world shall be Prussianized. It is our duty to make easy the spread of Christian civilization and to curb the spread of its antipathy—Prussianism. It will depend not on political dominance alone, but on the intellectual and spiritual attitude of the world. And this can be conveyed by language alone.

Purely as a means of communication the English language is particularly adapted to become a world language by its cosmopolitan vocabulary, its grammatical simplicity, and its uncomplicated syntax. Not only is its vocabulary rich in its scope, but it is capable of delicate shades of meaning. Because of its grammatical simplicity, it is much more easy to learn than a highly inflected language. Its literature, especially at the present, is vital, and its past is rich. The greatest hindrance to the widespread use of English is its spelling, which is encumbered by many superfluous letters, and is confused by its caotic, unscientific,

and misleading representation of many sounds by the same symbol, or by its use of many symbols for the same sound. This makes it practically impossible for foreners to learn the language except by imitation, and is the greatest barrier to the extension of English as a world language.

Mr. H. G. Wells, in his series of articles on *What is Coming*, in the *Saturday Evening Post* for April 15, writes as follows: "If beneath the alliances of the present war there is to grow up a system of enduring understanding that will lead to the peace of the world, there is needed, as a basis for such understandings, much greater facility of intellectual intercourse than exists at present. First, the world needs a *lingua franca*; next, the Western peoples need to know more of the Russian language and life than they do; and third, the English language needs to be made more easily accessible than it is at present. The chief obstacle to a Frenchman or Englishman learning Russian is the difficult and confusing alphabet; the chief obstacle to anyone learning English is the irrational spelling.

"The difficulty in teaching English lies in the inconsistency of the spelling and the consequent difficulties of pronunciation. If there were available an ample series of text-books, reading books, and books of general interest, done in consistent phonetic type and spelling—in which the value of the letters of the phonetic system followed, so far as possible, the prevalent usage in Europe—the difficulty in teaching English, not merely to foreigners but—as the experiments in teaching reading of the Simplified Spelling Society have proved up to the hilt—to English children can be very greatly reduced.

"At first the difficulty of the irrational spelling can be set on one side. The learner attacks and masters the essential language. Then afterwards he can, if he likes, go on to the orthodox spelling, which is then no harder for him to read and master than it is for an Englishman of ordinary education to read the facetious orthography of Artemus Ward or of the *Westminster Gazette* "orfis boy." The learner does one thing at a time instead of attempting, as he would otherwise have to do, two things—and they both difficult and conflicting things—simultaneously."

The question naturally arises as to how our spelling is a barrier to the spread of the English language. Language is sound-spoken words, and spelling in its legitimate office is merely a representation of sound. The American Philological Association in 1879 said that "the true and sole office of alphabetic writing is faithfully and accurately to represent spoken speech." On the one hand, we have the ideographic type, as represented in modern Chinese, in which there are purely arbitrary symbols to represent individual words, and on the other we have the representative type, such as Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, in which the sounds are represented fairly accurately. Midway between these, but growing nearer to the Chinese, is English; for spelling, the representation of the words, has become fixed, while pronunciation is constantly changing, making the breach between them wider and wider, a process which is bound to continue so long as we fail to spell as we pronounce.

The question of superfluous letters is well handled by Mr. Henry Holt, the publisher, who writes as follows: "I can but allude, too, to the obstacle our difficult spelling opposes to the spread of English as a world language. Professor Munsterberg says that it helped him to distinguish words with similar sounds and different meanings, which is one merit, and also called attention to many interesting etymologies and peculiarities. But things may be mere stepping-stones to a Munsterberg which will be obstacles to the average man. Yet his big intellectual strides carry him into some queer reasoning. He says (if I understand him) that increasing the number of words where *ed* final is spelt *t*, because pronounced so, forces the foreigner to memorize the changed ones or the unchanged ones. Did he not have to memorize the misspelt ones before the change was made? He says, too, that superfluous letters make it easy to recognize words. What percentage of superfluous letters? Just about the five that we have now? Why not ten better than five, or twenty than ten? Or if not that way, why is five better than two, or two better than one? The argument for any reminds one of the superfluous words which play so large a part in German philosophy and criticism."

We are all familiar with the confusion in the visual representation of our language, although many of us have forgotten the

difficulties we had in mastering them, if we ever did. We express one sound by many symbols, as in the case of long *i*, which has a different representation in each of the folloing words: *die*, *alkali*, *high*, *cry*, *aisle*, *aye*, *seismic*, *geyser*, *choir*, *guide*, *buy*, *eye*, and *isle*; or we use the same symbol to represent many sounds, as is seen in the folloing sounds of *ough*: *cough*, *rough*, *through*, *though*, *plough*, *hough*, *thorough*, and *hiccough*. We ar in somewhat the same position as modern Greek. The Greek language, Professor Gilbert Murray says, "has become so lumbered up with antiquarian memories that it is actually being beaten in the competition with others for ordinary commercial purposes in Greek waters."

It is to be remembered also that not every British citizen speaks English, and that this presents a very considerable obstacle to the assimilation of the peoples who ar of a different race and speak a different language. In India there are millions who speak only their nativ tongue, whom the British ar attempting to inculcate with Anglo-Saxon ideals, in which process the lack of a common medium of communication presents an insurmountable obstacle. In South Africa the fact that Dutch spelling has been simplified gives the Dutch language an advantage and thereby obstructs assimilation. Parents in South Africa often prefer their children to learn Dutch because of this question of spelling. In Malta there is a similar disadvantage in respect to Italian, and Canada itself has its bi-lingual problem. The result of our illogical and unhistorical method of spelling is that English is learnt by foreigners by word of mouth alone, and the printed page, except for the very few, is a closed book. Moreover, there is the danger of the English language being divided into dialects. Professor Gilbert Murray has said, "The English language, being very widely spread over the world, needs some common law or standard, otherwise there is the danger of its breaking into a number of dialects more or les mutually unintelligible." This issue is not yet vital, but is fast becoming so.

The disadvantage that English labors under in becoming a world language was long ago recognized by the great filologist Jacob Grimm, who wrote as folloes: "When we consider its richness, intellectuality, and adaptability, no one of all the other



living languages may be placed at its side—not even our German language . . . The continentalists may congratulate themselves that the English have not discovered that a whimsical mode of spelling stands in the way of the world-spread of their language.”

There are numerous advantages in simplifying our spelling, and these apply principally to those whose native speech is English. Educationally we waste a great deal of time, a waste that gives the foreign boy or girl a tremendous disadvantage in the struggle for personal and for national efficiency. But the waste of time, important as it is, is not as serious as is the fact that we are undermining the child's belief in reason and analogy. He is first taught, by a phonetic system, that *i-n* spells *in*, and *i-n-e* spells *ine*, as in *fin*, *fine*, *pin*, *pine*, *din*, *dine*. When this has become well established he meets such words as *engine* and *genuine*, and finds that the whole elaborate system that he has been taught so laboriously is not generally applicable. This destroys his confidence, not only in his own power to spell and to reason, but in the truthfulness and ability of his teachers.

Further than this it is a social question, for the average child goes through only six years of school, practically one of which is spent in ineffectually attempting to learn to spell. If this time, which is spent in a process that has no fundamental educational value, could only be applied to teaching those things that would make the boy or girl a more efficient individual and a more efficient member of society, a very great leakage in our national efficiency would be stopped.

In addition to the educational and social bearing there is the question of national economy, for a rational system of spelling would save fifteen per cent. of the time and money spent in all processes involved in printing and typesetting. A phonetic system of spelling would restore the normal English method, for English spelling in the beginning was phonetic, and has been changed, not through the process of evolution, but by foreign invaders or printers, who have used their foreign systems to represent English pronunciation, or by etymologists who have ignorantly changed our spelling to represent what they erroneously thought was the source of our words. It would be easier to spell correctly than incorrectly, and communication would be facilitated. Besides the extension of

English as a world language, the problem affects us internally in the assimilation of our foren population.

Nor ar there correspondingly weighty objections. It wil not "cut us off from the literature of the past," because nine-tenths of the words wil not be affected, and the remaining one-tenth wil not be so radically changed as to cause serius inconvenience. It wil not "destroy etymology," which the scolar knoes without the spelling, and which is frequently misleading as to the meaning of words. In many instances the present spelling is not etymologically correct. In nativ words etymological spelling wil often be restored. It is not necessary for those whose spelling habits ar fixt to burden themselvs unduly by "learning a new method." The chief advantage wil be for our children, for foreners, and for future generations.

The realization of the benefit of simplified spelling in the spread of the English language is not new. James Howell, in his Grammar publisht in 1662, in which he proposes some needed reforms in spelling, many of which became effectiv, after giving an example of his reformed spelling, closes his argument as folloes: "In this short example there are above twenty-seven letters saved, and the words made fit to be pronounst by any forener, being ritten as they are utterd; now as there was a hint given above, he doth his nativ tung a good office, who finds a way to spread her abroad, and makes her better known to the world."

Not only that Anglo-Saxon civilization may hav a fair chance to win in the relm of commerce, government, religion, and all the enlightend things our race stands for, but that succeeding generations of our descendants may be relieved of this incubus, we should restore our spelling to the place it has had until recently as a representation of the sounds of our language.

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## ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE

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### *ESPRIT DE CORPS OF TEACHERS.*

WM. SCOTT, B.A.

At a meeting of the General Committee of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, it was suggested that I should give a short address on the *Esprit de Corps* of Teachers. This French phrase, as I understand it, represents the animating principle that gives tone and vitality to the great body of the teaching profession. It is that which quickens the professional spirit or, in short, it may be said to be loyalty to one's own calling.

This topic at once suggests a number of pertinent questions that must be very close to the heart of every active, thoughtful member of our profession, such as do teachers hold that place in the world of life which the importance of their work merits? If not, why not, and what is the cause of this general lack of appreciation?

Some years ago, Mr. Wm. MacAndrews, Principal of the Washington Irving High School in New York City, sent a number of inquiries to leading teachers in the United States asking what they felt their own standing in the community to be. The replies, without exception, indicated that they felt themselves to be socially inferior to that of the general community, and furthermore, that the community estimated them at this valuation. What is the reason of the low estimation in which teachers are held as compared with other learned professions as law, medicine, or theology? It cannot be due to the idea, erroneous from its very nature, that teachers are inferior in general ability to the members of the other learned professions. Teachers at least would not admit the validity of this explanation.

Has the small remuneration that teachers in general receive anything to do with the general estimation in which they are held?

The question of salary will scarcely account for this low rating when we consider the poor remuneration with which many ministers have to be contented and the starvation incomes which many doctors and lawyers at first earn.

Will the much shorter time that is required to be spent in becoming a qualified teacher as compared with the time to train doctors, lawyers, and ministers account for the difference in which teachers and the other classes of the learned professions are regarded by the community in general?

It is a well known fact that after the academical requirements have been surmounted, some four or five years are required to be spent in professional work in the case of lawyers, doctors, and ministers as compared with between nine and ten months in which professional training is given to teachers; this long period of training to which lawyers and others are subjected together with the resulting associations must produce a wider intelligence and a broader culture to which the ordinary teacher cannot hope to aspire at the outset of his career. Would a longer period of academical and professional training serve to heighten the esteem in which teachers are held by adding to the real worth of the teacher in the community by broadening his knowledge of men and things and imparting that intangible quality which comes from continued association with those who are its fortunate possessors, culture. This longer period of training would tend to reduce the teaching profession more nearly to an equality with the other learned professions, give to teachers a standing not now accredited to them and insure a much larger measure of respect for the teacher's calling than it now enjoys. It would also result in keeping many out of the profession who wish to try teaching to see if they will like it, or who think this is an easy and respectable way of earning a few dollars to enable them to complete their course in one of the other learned professions.

Is it not an anomaly that teaching should be invaded by those who wish to use it as a stepping stone to some other profession? How would doctors and lawyers like to be subjected to the same measure of competition from teachers and so experience an application of their own medicine?

Is not another reason for the low estimation in which teachers are held to be found in the general estimate in which teaching



is held by those engaged in the work themselves? Do teachers generally regard their calling at its true worth? Do they regard it as the highest function to which the human intellect may aspire? Do they think of it as the noblest of professions or merely regard it as a respectable occupation, a trade which enables them to earn their living in a somewhat easier and more reputable way than the average workman? Is not this one of the reasons that teachers, successful teachers, with every assurance that brilliant and distinguished careers are already within their grasp are constantly deserting from the ranks to enter upon another vocation as that of law, medicine, theology or even some ordinary business pursuit as insurance, land speculating, or stock broking? If the low estimate in which they themselves hold the profession of teaching is not the main reason for deserting to another calling, then the inability of making an honest living and providing for old age must furnish the necessary additional reasons.

Another question that concerns every teacher is, why are school authorities almost everywhere looking for younger men and women to fill the places of those who have grown gray, and have acquired experience, and gained wisdom for their work? Why is at times the assertion made by school authorities that young teachers are superior to older ones? Why does the community make a radical distinction between the physician or lawyer in the one case and the teacher in the other? Why is a serious case of illness or a complicated case of law never handed over to the stripling doctor or the embryo lawyer? This difference of treatment cannot arise from mere physical failing for schools no longer require the services of an athlete to manage them. Is it not an intellectual weakness due to impaired mental powers resulting from the fact that this teacher has ceased to be a learner? It is a well known fact to all progressive teachers that only learners can stimulate learners. So when a teacher ceases to be a learner he soon becomes old, cynical, and stale and finds that he has lost his power to kindle and inspire another. The time is long past when teachers were expected to know a little more than the pupils they are to teach. To-day teachers are expected to know vastly more than their pupils. Now a well educated man is expected to know something about everything and everything about something, i.e., about the work he is expected to

perform. The teacher who knows commands the respect not only of his pupils but also of the community in which he moves. Thus it is that all great teachers have been ardent students. Is the fact that in too many cases teachers and ministers cease to be students and simply rest on their past attainments and reputations not an explanation of why these have lost their power and grip? In the one case, the same sermon is repeated time after time until it becomes stale and its vitality has gone out of it and in the other case the same lessons are gone over year after year until as Arnold said, "it becomes a stagnant pool." Is not this mental stagnation a prolific cause of old age which displays itself both in intellectual and physical weakness. The world furnishes many examples of women and men who have remained alert and young both intellectually and physically when long past the allotted span of life; on the contrary most of us know others who have rapidly declined in power and vigour when they ceased to have a life-giving occupation.

There is no doubt that teachers must remain students not merely along academic and professional lines to remain efficient workers but also along general culture lines to gain and retain the general respect of the community and hold their place in their own circle of society. They must know what is going on in the world of literature, art, and science. This will insure their being men among men; guarantee their being respected by the community at large and lend weight to their opinions wherever they are expressed.

Another important consideration for teachers is that of professional etiquette. Are teachers always true to themselves and loyal to their calling? Do they observe the same ethics to one another as members of other learned professions practice. Are teachers in general ready and willing to defend a fellow teacher whose good name is aspersed? Or are they not all too frequently found criticizing and making unkind and altogether uncalled for remarks concerning a fellow teacher, remarks which can do no good and which at times do much harm? Is the practice of looking for a position where none is vacant because it is somewhat better than the one they themselves occupy not altogether too common? Are teachers ready to discountenance that story

which ought not to be true and act as Richard Brinsley Sheridan said strong men should:—

Believe not each accusing tongue  
As most weak people do;  
But still believe that story wrong  
Which ought not to be true.

How is the difference between the loyalty to one another that is known to exist among members of the medical and other learned professions and the lack of cohesion which is a lasting reproach to the teaching profession to be accounted for? Has the longer time spent in professional work, the effect of knitting together and consolidating into a homogeneous whole the members of other learned professions in a manner which is altogether unknown and is perhaps quite impossible under existing conditions in teaching?

Or is the reason for the closer fellowship due to the fact that doctors, lawyers, and ministers belong to a great brotherhood as it were, a brotherhood which is supported not by voluntary contributions but by enforced payments. So these societies flourish. If the latter is the cause of the community of interest among the other learned professions does not this supply an unanswerable argument for the existence of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance as well as for the Government giving to the teachers of Ontario a workable superannuation Act. However this may be, if we are to become a brotherhood of teachers, then we must treat each other as becomes a great profession. We must cease competing for positions and thus playing into the hands of those trustees who still auction a vacant position off to the cheapest bidder. We must learn to defend our fellow teachers against false and unfounded accusations. We must act on all occasions as honourable and upright members of a noble profession and keep our engagement with our Board of Trustees no matter what may be the temptation to break it. If each strives in every legitimate way to maintain the dignity and good name of our profession, this will do much to re-establish the teaching profession in the good opinion of the community at large. Years ago the greatest educator of his own or any other time laid down a fine old rule for practical etiquette which read somewhat

as follows:—Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so unto them. This is just as applicable to the 20th century as to the Jewish Rabbis who heard it first as a new principle of living long, long ago.

From the beginning of the present war, on the platform and in the press, education for efficiency has been constantly before the English speaking world. Now in every department of human endeavour, co-operation and loyalty among the co-workers are needed, whether in athletics, in arms, in a business proposition or in the staff of a school. The time is past when in education, in sports, or even in life the star player can afford to sacrifice the success of the team to increase his vanity or promote his own personal ends. There must be a common understanding. Organization, discipline, fealty, and co-operation are as necessary to insure success and secure efficiency as in the management of a great army or a departmental store with its many co-operative parts. Hence the teacher in a well organized school should know what each is endeavouring to do. She should be in close touch with the work of her fellow teachers and be an interested and sympathetic co-worker. This devotion to the other members will conserve the strength of the whole and render the staff an effective machine in producing efficiency. Sporadic endeavour is just as ineffectual in a large school as in the case of an army. Thus it is necessary that the relations of the ideal teacher to her fellow teachers are those of mutual helpfulness. She will see to it that she is working with and not against, nor independent of her fellows. This may be somewhat difficult at times. In large schools, teachers have most likely come from different environments. They differ in habits and temperaments. They likely have very different degrees of training and experience. To unify a staff from such diverse elements involves many delicate personal matters. Here the skill and professional magnetism of the principal shows itself in moulding his teaching force into a united unified whole. Here his personal influence must be exercised in curbing the idiosyncracies of cranky ones, in stimulating some timid one so that she may grow stronger and more self-reliant, in inciting the indifferent to more worthy endeavour and become worthy of a place on the staff of his school.



From this the importance and necessity of having regular conferences of the staff, if efficiency is to be secured, will be obvious.

In conclusion, in the work of having a proper esprit de corps among teachers, I have endeavoured to show:—

1st, the importance of training, academic and professional;

2nd, the necessity of the teacher being and remaining a student;

3rd, the need of proper professional ethics, and

4th, the necessity of a united staff.

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## LEAGUE OF EMPIRE SECTION

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### *ITALY, FRANCE AND GREECE IN RELATION TO THE WAR.*

MAURICE HUTTON, M.A., LL.D.

"Genius is the faculty of taking pains," was said by a Frenchman and popularized (for us) by an Englishman's translation: but it looks as if both Frenchman and Englishman had their eyes on "Germany" when they uttered or translated this paradox. It is certainly not true that genius is no more than the faculty of taking pains: but it may be true that the nearest approach to genius possible in Germany is this faculty, and she has it to admiration.

An Italian foreign minister, di San Julianò, who has died since the war began but who as long as he lived stuck to the German alliance, is said to have expressed the opinion that Germany was the flower of the human race because she possessed the distinctive qualities of the British and the French alike. He probably meant the tenacity and the phlegm and silence of the British with the imagination of the French; but whatever he thought of their tenacity and phlegm, where is the German imagination now? It seems to have died with the Germany of the poets, of Schiller and Goethe and Heine: the Germany which ruled the air (but not by means of aeroplanes and Zeppelins). It is the one quality most lacking; lacking in respect of Belgium and the effect of the invasion of it upon the world—upon Great Britain first and foremost, but afterwards, and only second in importance, upon the United States and the world of neutrals.

Lacking just as much in respect of the Lusitania.

It appears now (from Dr. Dillon's book on Italy) that nothing contributed so much—neither Austrian stupidity and dilatoriness—nor even the essential irreconcilability of Italy and

Austria—nor the Gallipoli expedition which raised quite unfounded expectations in Italy of Turkish collapse—to Italy's plunge into war, as the Lusitania incident. The plunge was an impulse, not a policy: and an impulse of a moral not a political or even a racial character. It was moral politics, like the British policy against Turkey during the Bulgarian atrocities; an outburst of common humanity and outraged sentiment.

It appears that not only had the German ambassador in Rome omitted to foresee *this* factor against him, but his Italian ally—Giolitti—just as much; and stranger still, even the Italian Premier their antagonist. All three were unprepared for the national outburst of indignation, and were pushed by it—the two first into exile national or political, and the third into an immediate war.

Democracy is only quite satisfactory in moral crises like these; it is only then that the common voice of humanity has a right to over-ride policy and prudence. But this was a moral crisis and justified government "from the street," if ever it is justified. Further, it was a case of democracy overruling not merely aristocracy (as in the case of Lord Beaconsfield's Turco-phil policy in the seventies) but of democracy overruling itself, that is, overruling parliamentary government. The parliamentary system of Italy before the war was that form of democracy which is common enough; which has been seen in France in the eighties and the nineties in the Panama scandals,\* which has threatened Great Britain in the Marconi scandals and the intrigues of 1914 (before the war) which has been seen in the United States at all times—during their war and after their war of North and South, and often since; government by Tammany rings.

The Italian people deposed their Parliament because it was rank and corrupt. They told their parliamentary representatives that they were representatives no longer, that they were misrepresenting them; (democracy, as a young Oxford wit once said in the Oxford Union, is the daughter—why not the mother rather?—of Miss Representation) they told them to turn round and vote the other way; and the members, though they were creatures of Giolitti, appointed by Giolitti rather than by the people, were forced to do so. The king, feeling that he had the people behind him, refused to accept the resignation of the

premier and the foreign minister, though they were the ministers of a minority in Parliament; and the minority straightway became a majority. The members had no choice but to vote for the minority ministers. The minister of the majority—Giolitti—was cowed by the outburst of popular feeling and declined to form a government; the old ministers came back, and the Parliament ate its votes and accepted them, and Giolitti left Rome, which he had ruled for years as Tammany often has ruled New York. There have been often similar occasions in France and Great Britain when the majority in Parliament is a popular minority in the country; but there has never been in France or Great Britain quite such a dramatic illustration of the salient weakness of parliamentary democracy, the power which it gives to a parliamentary majority to hold on to power and misrepresent the country, long after it has exhausted its mandate and ceased to be what it professes to be, the voice of the nation. What can prevent this but annual elections—and yet who would care to pay that price?

Only in a great crisis, like the present war, and only perhaps when great popular issues, that is great moral issues, are mixed up with a war crisis, is it possible for a nation, to rise against its own representatives, before their time is expired, and force its will upon them. Until the Lusitania incident, the mass of well informed Italians said it was certain that Italy would remain neutral. How should it be otherwise? The great Bank of Italy was a German bank, the commercial interests of Italy were in German hands; the middle class and the investing classes had their money in concerns dependent on German capital; the aristocracy in a large measure, for commercial and for aristocratic reasons equally, leaned to the aristocratic powers, Austria and Germany, and recognized that the war was a war for the maintenance of Aristocracy in Europe; some of the highest officers of the army were currently reported to have said that war on the side of the Allies was out of the question for Italy. The church—at any rate its head and Bishops, were almost frankly pro-Austrian; Austria being the only catholic power left in Europe, with the exception of neutral Spain. With the banks, the middle classes, the aristocracy, the high officers of the army and the church all against intervention, intervention seemed a wild dream



of the Garibaldians and the poor; the Garibaldians who lived in ancient history and the memories of the Risorgimento, and the poor, who found no other romance in their hard lives except the romance of patriotism and the hopes of redeeming "*Italia irredenta*," the Trentino and Trieste.

And yet the wild dream became a reality last May, and as is usual in this strange topsy-turvy world, partly by accidents, and some of them insufficient and rather absurd accidents, partly through the Lusitania, but partly also through the exaggerated expectations founded on the ill-fated Gallipoli Expedition. What that expedition was meant to do it never did; what perhaps it was never meant to do, or at any rate what it did not primarily and in the first place set out to do, the stirring up of Italian interests in Turkey, it accomplished.

Cobden has been dead for only a little more than half a century, and Cobden said that trade would be the great pacificator, the herald of universal and permanent peace; it has been almost the exact opposite, the fertile cause of war; and not least in this matter of Italy's intervention.

Italy owns twelve islands off the south-west corner of Asia Minor: Rhodes and the rest, the dodekanesoi; she owns concessions for railways on the coast opposite. The pressure of these commercial interests is not a very exalted pressure; it is a pressure of exactly the same material and somewhat sordid character as the pressure which Germany exerted on Italian policy. But when the Gallipoli Expedition seemed likely to succeed, these material motives did something to offset and cancel the material motives on the side of Germany, and with the material interest of Italy divided, the less material motives, the sentiment of humanity and the sentiment of patriotism, the Lusitania and *Italia irredenta*, had a chance to come into play. They came into play and tipped the balancing scales.

I notice that even now I have omitted one of the forces—a very modern but very powerful force—which also made against Italian intervention; the Socialists of Italy like many British Socialists are pacifists on principle; not the most lofty principle perhaps, but a very powerful principle, the principle of class consciousness. They are opposed to war on principle, because their class, they say, does the fighting, becomes food for powder.

cannon-fodder in their expressive phrase, but reaps nothing ever except heavier taxation even from victory.

The Socialists of Italy also then were against Salandra and Sonnino and were behind Giolitti; just as in England Mr. Asquith has still great difficulties with the trade unions, if not with the leaders, and even his tact and adroitness—before the war broke out and apart from the war he might have gone down to history as only a glorified British Giolitti, an unsurpassed manipulator of men and manager of a mixed Cabinet at cross purposes—even his tact and adroitness and patience has not yet quite succeeded in persuading the British trade unionists that there are things in the world better than personal liberty—the liberty to be conquered—and things worse than compulsion and conscription which preserve for them a country to be free in.

It is only in one great home of socialism—and this brings me to France—that the Socialists have already learned that lesson. Nothing in the marvellous unity of France since the war—the most disunited of all countries before the war, because the most intelligent and the most idealistic—is more marvellous than the support which the French Socialists give to their government and to the prosecution of the war. All the Socialist tags against war, all the rhetoric about the “sans patries,” all the eloquent scorn of “leur patrie” as a phrase for the mouth of workingmen—what has their country, *leur patrie*, done for them but starve them, it used to be said—it is all silent and for the time forgotten, at least unspoken; and all the prophecies that French workmen would make France’s troubles *their* opportunity have been falsified. Cosmopolitanism, the United States of Europe, war against war, all the idealism of this kind, which had its natural home in France has for the time passed away. It passed away in a moment directly it became clear, that the German workingmen, as any one who knows Teutonic human nature a little could have told them, were Germans as well as workingmen, and would never resist the appeal of their government that Germany should dominate the world.

Then the French Socialists in their turn became Frenchmen; and the very authors of the eloquence and rhetoric of socialism, the very crusaders of *La Guerre Sociale*, asked to be sent to the front.

It may all be revived after the war, that eloquence and rhetoric, who knows? Who can prophecy? It all depends upon the question which none of us can yet answer—is the appeal of cosmopolitanism, of the United States of Europe, of a world without nationalities and with no rivalry or war except the internal rivalries and the civil war of classes, is that Socialist ideal fundamentally nobler than the ideal of nationalities, and the rivalry of races and of racial temperaments out of which comes so often national war? If life is based on competition, is the competition of nation and nation better or worse than the competition of class and class, and of individual and individual? Foreign wars, as we all can see with half an eye to-day, have a certain natural compensation in the self-sacrifice and unselfishness they incidentally occasion; class-warfare, civil war, on the other hand, just as obviously has no such compensation, and excites instead and fattens on some of the meanest of human motives, inordinate envy and jealousy. But if out of these poor elements, envy and jealousy, can be evolved a wider equality, and better conditions for the poor, and a happier life for the mass of men, is the goal worth the moral cost? These are questions still in the future, which will have to be faced again, when the attempt of one nation to dominate Europe has been foiled. Meanwhile no one in France bothers with them; but everyone seems to feel that for the moment there is something better to think about, or rather there is something better to do than to think at all; and every one seems happier that he should be able to adjourn these problems to a later date and cease thinking.

It is a depressing reflection—but no one can escape it—that most men are happier, not when they are working for ideals or trying to frame ideals, but when some vulgar and obvious necessity for commonplace virtues, forces them for the moment to forego thought and ideas and idealisms, and do instead with all their might, a very simple and prosaic duty, which has just to be done. It almost seems as if a merciful but ironical Providence laughs at the thought with which it has endowed man; mocks his ideas and idealisms and makes a man happy almost against his will and in spite of his protests, by compelling him to fall back upon the commonest and vulgarest of realities and duties.

as though he were not a thinking creature at all but just a creature made for action.

At any rate, France seems much happier since she has deferred all her intellectual combats, and thrown herself into action.

Some quaint ethnologists have argued that the change in France is due to racial causes; that the France of idealism and of thought is the South of France, the France of the Greek colonists and the Southern Celts and the Romanized Gauls, and these Frenchmen they say used to rule France. To-day rather it is the other sort of Frenchmen, the Franks and the North men, less intelligent but more steadfast and stubborn whom the war has called to the front. That seems a very fanciful and far-fetched explanation of the change in French behaviour, and not necessary. Is not the war itself—the most unprovoked, unnecessary and arrogant of all wars—a direct war of aggression upon an unprepared and very pacific people, quite a sufficient explanation of this change? Never before has France fought without some far-fetched motive for fighting—good or bad—some high idealism of liberating the world from tyrants, or some lower idealism of conquering it for France. When she is fighting simply for life, simply, as all brave men fight, for her existence and her race and traditions, is it any wonder that even France—the land of ideas and idealisms—fights all the better, fights better than ever, better even than herself, because the present cause is simpler and less mixed with dubious motives, with dubious ideals, I mean, and still more dubious ambitions?

I have left Greece to the last because there is little to be said yet about Greece in relation to the war; the time is not yet come. The classical scholar smiles indulgently at Greece and her evasions and delays, and says “the same old Greece; too clever by half and too shifty; never simple enough or manly enough. The Greeks blacked the boots of Rome in the old world as to-day they black the boots of later Romans and later barbarians up the whole length of Yonge Street; and in this war they have been blacking the boots of Germans.” But the irony is not quite just. The only man in Greece who blacks no man’s boots, who has been straight and clear and determined from the first, is Venezelos, a true Greek; a Greek of the Greeks; a Greek from the island which gave Greece its first civilization, Crete;



and the man who has been shifty and crooked and cunning and has played for time and prevaricated is a German Dane—King Constantine. Venezelos tried to bring the Balkan States together into an alliance in January, 1915. He tried to come to terms with Bulgaria. He recognized that Bulgaria—in spite of Bulgarian treachery—had been ill used in the second Balkan War of 1913; he tried to induce Greece and Serbia to make concessions to her. He said he had King Constantine's consent to offer to her—what she still lacks—a decent port—the port of Kavalla, with the rich tobacco hinterland. The king said he had not consented; Venezelos resigned and appealed to the country. He came back with a majority. Then the king dismissed him, in spite of his majority, and Venezelos told his supporters not to vote again, to protest against an illegal election by not voting. But meanwhile he suggested that the Allies occupy Saloniki. The Allies would do nothing against Bulgaria or against Greece, as long as Bulgaria was neutral. When Bulgaria, after protesting her friendship to the Allies, joined the Germans last August by a secret treaty made in July in the very midst of the tearful protests of her king that he was neutral, the Allies occupied Saloniki. Greece protested against the Allies' occupation, but it has continued, and without much friction. The people of Greece are probably still with Venezelos. The Greek army was trained by Frenchmen and seems to get along fairly well with General Sarrail and the French army of occupation. The Germans say "here is another Belgium. You have invaded Greece as we invaded Belgium; you are no better than we are." What is the answer? It might be answered—you can only fight the devil with fire. If a Power begins by tearing up treaties and disregarding neutralities, that Power may almost compel its opponents to disregard other neutralities, especially a neutrality which is contrary to treaty. Belgium I mean suffers at German hands because she tried to keep her neutrality and her treaty of neutrality with Europe. Greece suffers—if she suffers—at French and British hands because she violated her treaty with Serbia. If that answer is not sufficient it can be added that Greece is not a Belgium, a land set apart by Europe for neutrality because she has been the cockpit of Europe. Greece has never been a guaranteed neutral. Greece was re-made by

Great Britain, France and Russia in 1829 with a clause, that the Powers which made her might by agreement among themselves occupy her ports. Greece, again, in modern times, I mean, never possessed Saloniki till 1912, and then only kept it by European permission, having stolen a march on Bulgaria when Bulgaria was engaged in fighting the common battle against the Turks. But the true defence, of course, is that Saloniki is not occupied against Greece or against the wishes of the Greek people, but with the consent of the lawful premier and people, and against the wishes of an arbitrary and German-ruled king. Meanwhile, the king can continue to court Germany and annoy the Allies; he is wise to do so even; he knows that when one has to choose between offending Germany and offending France and Great Britain, it is wiser to offend the latter. They will occupy his port and the adjoining territory in order to give Serbia the aid he ought to be giving her, but he knows that they will not levy requisitions and shoot hostages and execute nurses or discharge the other amenities of *Deutschtum* and *kultur*. He knows that when they leave they will pay their bills and march out by the good roads they will have made, and the land will have been the better for their occupation. There is nothing in Saloniki to suggest Aerschot or Louvain and Termonde and Liège, nothing to recall the German occupation of Belgium. When you have to choose between offending gentlemen and offending Germans, you will of course—if you are wise Greeks—offend the gentlemen. They will only retaliate in gentle and gentlemanly ways. You know that Frenchmen are idealists and humanitarians, and that Britons are always fools, but that Germans will never be gentlemen. You know that Germans never play the game, never play indeed any game without cheating. Their idea of a game is to hack their way through.

And there the situation still remains, and only time will clear it up and discover whether Constantine the German Dane and the Kaiser's brother-in-law, represents Greece or Venezelos the Greek Cretan, twice elected premier by a free people.

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*REPORT, ANNUAL MEETING, APRIL 26th, 1916*

MRS. H. S. STRATHY.

Once more our annual meeting returns and finds the British Empire and its Allies still at war—still with only one thought—the prosecution of the present world-war to a final and successful conclusion. Already we can see that, notwithstanding all its horrors, the war has done more to unify the Empire and to advance the ideals of the League of the Empire than fifty years of peace could possibly have done. It has, of course, affected the work of the League as it has affected every society working in the British Empire, and many of our activities for the present have been altered to suit the present conditions.

The Ontario Government has unavoidably postponed until after the war the meeting of the Imperial conference on Education which was to have been held, at the invitation of the Government and under the auspices of the League of the Empire, in Toronto, during the coming summer. It is now intended to hold the conference as soon as practicable at the conclusion of the war.

The conference as first planned would have been of great Imperial usefulness, but the crisis through which we are passing now will give it a value new and immeasurably greater than could have been anticipated when it was first decided upon. It is a subject of great gratification to us that the first united meeting for educational purposes of representatives from the whole Empire will be held in Toronto and at the invitation of our Government, at the conclusion of the war and through the initiative of the League of Empire.

The League this year launched a scheme for the study of Imperial history, which has been taken up with great enthusiasm in many of the schools of Great Britain and in some of the High Schools of our own country. Prof. George M. Wrong, at the request of the Canadian Council, prepared a paper on Canada with a bibliography in the interests of this scheme. The paper has been circularized through the Federal Magazine and has proved of great value to many students throughout the Empire taking up this study. The Ontario Council offered last year two prizes to the Secondary Schools of Canada for the best poems

on the Great War. Many schools throughout Canada took part in this competition. The prizes were adjudged by Prof. Pelham Edgar, Prof. Wallace and Prof. Hutton, and were gained by Miss Clara Haskins, Riverdale High School, Toronto, and Henry Grant, St. John's Technical School, Winnipeg. This year, prizes have again been offered for the two best poems on the Battle of St. Julien and they will again be judged by the beginning of June, by Prof. Pelham Edgar, Prof. Wallace and Principal Hutton.

The interim conference is to be held in London, July 17-19 this year, when educational conditions induced or influenced by the war will be discussed. Papers have been requested from the Overseas Dominions to be read at this conference and we are most glad to report that Dr. James L. Hughes has agreed to furnish the paper on Canadian conditions. Mrs. Ord Marshall, the Hon. Secretary in London, also reports that it is proposed to hold a summer meeting immediately after the conference, with visits and investigation respecting the historic City of London. All educationalists and teachers who may be in London this summer are invited by the League to be present at this meeting.

The League has taken up special war work in Canada in the making and forwarding of special "news from home" budgets from the schools to the men in the trenches. The schools have responded splendidly to this scheme, but as the number of men has grown larger and larger the League has gone outside the schools and interested other workers in this movement. In consequence, the Women's Institutes, the Girl Guides, Patriotic Societies, etc., are all lending their aid and many thousands of budgets now go forward weekly to the trenches to the very great pleasure of the men who receive them, who write in terms of warmest appreciation of the news that reaches them in this way.

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## COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

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### *THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE STATE TO EDUCATION.*

A. H. McDougall, LL.D.

Many definitions have been given of the word "education," but underlying them all is the conception that it denotes the result of the desire of the community to impose on the growing generation the elements of culture that have been inherited from the past together with that additional increment of culture which the existing generation has succeeded in working out for itself.

Different influences have interacted to develop or modify the result of this desire: religious organizations have founded and maintained schools, colleges, universities, seminaries, whole systems of education; wealthy men have built and endowed institutions varying from charity schools to great universities; stock companies or individual schoolmasters have established schools as commercial speculations; parents have employed private tutors for their families; young people have through their own exertions educated themselves; cities, towns and rural districts have provided schools; lastly, the state has interfered and assisted or in different degrees assumed the control of education.

Notwithstanding all these sources of influences tending to provide education the mass of the people in every country remained without schooling until within the last one hundred years. The major part of the industrial or agricultural population cannot afford the necessary minimum of instruction which the public interest demands, and private or voluntary effort cannot efficiently supply the want resulting from the unequal distribution of wealth. It has come to be generally, almost we may say universally, accepted by the civilized nations of the modern world that some degree of State control, or of State

interference or assistance, at least in elementary education, is a necessity. While the details may vary and even the general principles governing the interferences are not uniform, a considerable measure of agreement has been reached with regard to the extent and limits of state activities.

In the first place, it is recognized that it is the duty of the State to insist on a certain minimum of education for every child. It may, or may not, be part of that duty to provide the teaching or other facilities, that is, the State does not usually claim to have a monopoly even of the most elementary education. But where the opportunity has not been provided by private or religious organization the State is expected to do so.

At this stage, perhaps, unanimity of opinion ceases to hold sway. There is a much decreased, and still diminishing, body of opinion which holds that the duty of the State does not go beyond the obligation to demand or supply the universal knowledge of the three R's.

In general, however, it is admitted that the modern State cannot stop short at elementary education. It requires an army of teachers, informed and cultured men and women, whose training cannot be left to the chance of private arrangement if the most elementary work is to be efficient.

On industrial or commercial grounds, too, there is a cogent, practical, necessity imposed by the fierce competition which prevails in the varied industries of modern life. The nation that is to hold its own in any or all forms of success, that is to maintain and improve its national life and civilization must see that it has a constant or increasing supply of workers adequately trained in respect both of general intelligence and technical equipment.

One of the most difficult problems of the present time and of the immediate future is to find qualified teachers for vocational schools. Such teachers must be drawn either from experienced academic teachers or from trained technical men from the industries. To be efficient either class must acquire the qualities of the other. The academic teacher lacks technical skill, while the mastery of the subject matter on the part of the other is not a sufficient preparation for teaching it. It is dangerous to employ men from the industries who have been misfits in their

work and who seek an asylum in the industrial schools; while it is difficult for the mere academic teacher to get in touch with actual industrial conditions.

Again, in democratic communities, where the most momentous issues of perhaps a world wide policy are confided to the popular vote, a wide diffusion of knowledge and the cultivation of a high standard of intelligence among the people becomes a necessary precaution of prudent statesmanship.

Then a democratic community requires that there should be some approximation to equality of opportunity. While the majority of the future citizens of a State may be satisfied with, or may only have the capacity for, a limited development, the State in its own interests must see that the more able or more ambitious of a very considerable minority are provided with the means of obtaining technical or other éducation in grades adapted to their need or capacity.

"The ideal or perfect system would provide for the participation in the opportunities for education of all individuals according to their ability, the occupation they are to follow, and the place they are to occupy in the State."

In any attempt to formulate the means by which the State can with the highest degree of efficiency attain these most desirable objects we are at once confronted by a fundamental political problem. In what proportion shall the control of the whole system of education be divided between the centralized organization of the State on the one hand and on the other local authorities who are in more or less immediate contact with the parents of the young people who are the human material on which the system acts? The answers to this problem worked out in Germany, or in France, give the extreme of centralization; that worked out in the United States of America gives the extreme of individualism.

"In Germany," wrote Mr. M. E. Sadler, in 1904, "the masses of the people have very little to do with determining the course of educational policy; in America nearly all education rests on popular control. In Germany, educational progress is guided by administrative order; in America it depends much more upon free discussion. In Germany, as a rule, the keys of the position are in the hands of a strong authority; in America, there is

very great local freedom. Germany (and Prussia in particular) has a strong tradition in favour of direct State management of industrial and other concerns; in America (with considerable exceptions) the tradition is the other way."

The examination of the points of strength and weakness of the two systems and the determination of how the first may be utilized and the second avoided constitutes a problem of interest and importance. Somewhere between the two extremes lies the golden mean at which a high degree of systematic efficiency or organization stops short of the point at which it interferes with the formation of real men. The German system, beginning with high ideals, grew in strength and thoroughness for over three centuries and then, falling under control of a military aristocracy, became a potent instrument in the development of a monstrosity which threatens the destruction of civilization.

However, it seems that even in the most highly centralized systems there are fundamental differences: "In Germany," says G. K. Chesterton, in his recent book, *the Crimes of England*, "the people really are educated; but in France the people educate—." No state of social good that does not mean the Citizen choosing good, as well as getting it, has the idea of the Citizen at all." Again he says: "Within the iron framework of the fixed state, the German has not only liberty but anarchy. Anything can be said, although, or rather because, nothing can be done." As to the truth in recent times of this statement that in Germany "anything can be said" we shall further on again hear from Mr. Sadler.

In Germany, as in Scotland, the national organization of education began with the Reformation. Luther resolved to supplant the formal teaching of Rome with a rational training of head and heart. This undertaking demanded the combined support of Family, State and Church. Family government he considered the basis of all other government.

"It will be the duty of the mayors and councils to exercise the greatest care over the young. The welfare of the city does not consist alone in great treasures, firm walls, beautiful houses, and munitions of war; indeed when all these are found and reckless fools come into power, the city sustains the greatest injury. But the highest welfare, safety and power of a city



consists in able, learned, wise, upright, cultivated citizens, who can secure, preserve and utilize every treasure and advantage—the maintenance of civil order and the proper regulation of the household, needs accomplished and well-trained men and women.”

The part of this quotation about reckless fools that come into power almost seems to rise into the region of prophecy.

In 1528, in the Electorate of Saxony occurred the first official response to Luther's appeal for the co-operation of municipalities in the foundation of Protestant schools. A uniform system of schools throughout the Electorate was provided for. The need of higher schools was soon felt and three such schools were established by the State government and richly endowed with the possessions of secularized monasteries. These schools were the first established in Germany, not for the benefit of the municipalities but in the interest of the State and Church. To them young nobles preparing for political careers and poor boys looking to the ministry as a profession were admitted on equal footing.

In Prussia, the system started by Frederick William I, enlarged and strengthened by his son, Frederick the Great, was brought by Wilhelm von Humbolt, in the days of the national regeneration, to such a high level of dignity and efficiency that of itself it was said to have sufficed to place Prussia in the forefront of educational progress. It became the accepted model for the imitation of other States and nations.

In his report to the Schools Inquiry Commission of 1866, Matthew Arnold said: “The school system of Germany in its completeness and carefulness is such as to excite the foreigner's admiration.”

After the war of 1870 the order of the day in France itself in education, as in military institutions, was imitation of the Germans.

But the system did not satisfy Kaiser William II: “The school does not yield what we expected of it.” And again he said: “The schools and universities ought to have taken up the question in earnest and instructed the young generations in such a way that young men who are now about my age,” that is to say about thirty, “should by this time have brought together the materials wherewith I might work the State and thus speedily become master of the situation.”

To the Kaiser, and to his advisers, the State organization and control of education appeared as an instrument to be used, with the military arm, in gaining control not only of the human and material resources of the German people but of the whole world. Their ambition was bounded by nothing short of that end.

To counteract the decentralizing tendencies which had manifested themselves the system must be so modified and controlled from above that the eyes of all, professors and students alike, must be turned inwards on the episodes of the history of the ancestry of the Kaiser and to exclude everything that is not German.

An illuminating example of the means employed in furtherance of the Kaiser's plan is given by Mr. Sadler in a recent number of the *University Magazine*. A distinguished and learned university had got into the black books of the higher officials in Berlin through its reputation for radical thinking. An eaves-dropper among the professors was encouraged and his tale-bearing of radical opinions uttered in private by members of the staff was welcomed. Professors, although they might be on the list of recommended candidates, had comparatively little chance of promotion and in the university circles of German-speaking Europe the reputation of being out of favour with the high authorities in Berlin spread to the detriment of that university.

The fervid patriotism and sublime courage of the French people evident day by day in the Great War make it almost ungracious to remind ourselves that there also the results of the system of rigid State control have not been satisfactory. As in Germany, the tendency has been to the formation of a caste. The author of *Anglo-Saxon Superiority*, Demolins, in the later nineties, summed up the answer to his own question: "Does the French School System Form Men?" with the verdict: "Our educational system therefore forms chiefly good officials; it is hardly capable of producing anything else. It is especially unfitted to form men."

But in the ten, or twelve years immediately preceding the war France had reacted against the decadent tendencies which followed the exhausting experiences of her defeat in 1870. This awakening was "indicated by the growing interest of the indus-

trial classes in scientific and vocational education, by the confident tone of university men, and by the spread of French scholastic influences to other nations." Among the indications of this new spirit noted by a writer shortly before the war are "the patriotism of the intellectual youth of France; the love of adventure and the pleasure in sports"—the latter evidenced by the fact that while "ten years ago sport was almost an unknown quantity in the schools, to-day the love of sport in all its forms has become general; and finally the 'the renaissance of faith.'"

The recent history of Germany and of France thus shows two great dangers inherent in highly centralized systems of education: the danger that one man, or a relatively small group of men, may use such a system as an instrument to fasten their personal control on an empire or on the world; and the danger that the creative power of individual progress may be lost in the working of a system where each man strives to find a place as an office-holding automaton.

The system of rigid central organization tends to place too high a value upon mere uniformity and thereby fails to adapt itself to the varying conditions of different localities. Individual initiative and originality are reduced in proportion as the control of the school is removed from local influences. Too much may depend on the disposition of some ruling official, sometimes stagnation may result, or again arbitrary changes with irritating insistence on minute details of administration.

On the other hand an imposing catalogue may be made of the faults of a system of excessive decentralization. The general tendency of these faults is towards lack of efficiency. If every small community had complete control of its own schools, needless and bewildering diversity might be the result; although this tendency is in large measure counteracted by the tendency to follow the prevailing fashion in education as in other things.

People become obsessed with the desire of change for its own sake and then the pupils are liable to be the victims of ill-considered or reckless experiments. When local areas are small, power is liable to get into the hands of incompetent persons. Personal, family, religious or political influences may altogether frustrate the wish of parents to give the best educational advantages to their children.

These faults are not confined to elementary education but in different degrees, according to circumstances, may affect secondary or higher education. In the United States there are some six hundred institutions having the power, usually associated with a university or at least a college, of conferring the degree of bachelor of arts. These vary from institutions of highest standing and reputation to others that are not in advance of ordinary high schools.

When private or free schools of whatever nominal grade are free from inspection or other form of State influence there is constant probability, amounting almost to certainty, that inefficient institutions will impose upon ill-informed or easy-going parents. The public, credulous, confiding, often ignorant, requires the same form of protection from the alluring advertisements of the inefficient school that it does from the promises of the quack doctor.

What then should be the policy of the State towards its system of education? If it does too much, it becomes the direct cause of serious evils. If it does too little, evils of neglect, unequal opportunity, inefficiency in various forms exist along with the positive development of harmful conditions.

The fundamental matter that should be recognized is the mental attitude of the community at large, of the parents and of the children. Are the people to be educated, or are they to educate? In Germany as in America there is without doubt a profound and general interest in education with this contrast—that in the one case the parents and their children, with the teachers or professors, constitute the passive material, the plastic mass, on which the authorities stamp their ideas; in the other the individuals constitute a sentient whole, not only considering and deciding on ideals and methods but having the additional incentive that comes from the possession of the power to put their conclusions into actual practice.

Centralized power can best provide much of the machinery of education, but it is superlatively worth while to consider how this can be done not only to engage the active and intelligent interest of all but to preserve and increase their power of initiative.



In detail the activities of the State with respect to education may be listed somewhat as follows, the State should:—

Collect, edit, and disseminate information that would be useful to teachers and boards of education. In Canada there may, in the more or less distant future, be a central office that, without infringing on provincial rights, would perform services for the whole country similar to those rendered by the Commission of Education at Washington to the people of the United States.

The State should determine the point up to which education should be made compulsory.

It should determine how the cost of education should be met.

It should prescribe minimum conditions with regard to buildings, grounds, and sanitation.

Require teachers to possess a sound education, train them in the theory and practice of their art, and then give them the utmost liberty compatible with the duty to deal with such cases of incompetence as may here and there arise.

Finally, it should preserve State or Provincial control while encouraging, or better perhaps, abstaining from interference with local initiative and responsibility.

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*DR. TASSIE—HIS LIFE AND WORK.*

BY REV. PROF. JAMES BALLANTYNE, D.D., KNOX COLLEGE.

Fourteen years ago, in the summer of 1902, there gathered in the town, now the City of Galt, a company unique in the history of Canada. The town was in holiday attire, and its homes were thrown open to entertain the many guests who came not from the neighbourhood alone, but from the distant Yukon, from all parts of Canada and from the United States—men of all ranks and classes, young men, middle aged and those whose heads were white with the snows of many winters. They came not to declare their affection for the town, nor even to celebrate the jubilee of the Galt Collegiate Institute—the ostensible cause of the gathering, but chiefly to pay honour to the memory of a teacher, William Tassie, who for 28 years had been the head of this school. Everything was forgotten in the desire that their tribute to the great master should be fitting and worthy.

My task to-day is to give some account of his life and work. By no means an easy task. For, in spite of the fact that he had an unrivalled reputation in his day the life of such a teacher is necessarily monotonous. It is without stirring incident and one day is pretty much like another. Then, the educational ideals of that age—he was in his prime just fifty years ago—are radically different from those which prevail now. We are apt to judge the teachers of the past by our own standards and are in danger of being unjust to them. It is well to remember the principle in all historical study, that one age may judge another age, but only his own age may judge the individual. In our estimate of those of a former time we should strive to be generous, for then we are not likely to miss the value of that past in making the present complete.

In 1853, William Tassie came to Galt as headmaster of the Grammar School that had been founded just a year before. To tell the truth, he was not head over any other teacher. He was the sole instructor and there were but seven or eight pupils. Of his early life and training I know but little; he was singularly reticent about these years. It is known, however, that he was

born and brought up in Ireland, that he was married at a very early age, and being without means had come to Canada and taken up the profession of teaching. For this he had had no professional training and was equipped only with the ideals and methods that existed at the time, particularly in the old land. But so successful was he in his chosen calling that in a few years his school enjoyed not merely a national but a continental reputation.

Recalling the three years I spent there as a pupil, I think of boys from Mississippi and Alabama, from New York and Ohio, from Chicago, Detroit and other cities of the United States. I remember boys who came from every Province of the Dominion of Canada and almost every large centre in these provinces, some of them bearing names well known in the public and professional life of the land—such names as Tupper, Blake and Mowat; Osler, Moss and Keefer; Cronyn, Macbeth and Carling; Boulton, Cayley and Galt. In fact, it was not a local school; it drew eighty per cent. of its pupils from beyond the limits of the community in which it was situated. There was a standing feud and many a pitched battle fought between the town boys and the "Tassie Apes" as they were called. Upper Canada College, with all the advantage of a public endowment, was the only rival in attracting students from afar, and probably for many years Galt had the pre-eminence.

What explanation can be given of the outstanding position the school enjoyed in the educational world of that day?

1. First of all, and above all, it was due to the remarkable personality of Dr. Tassie. A true Celt, trained in that land which in the early Middle Ages was called "the University of the West," he brought to his work not only his distinctive racial characteristics but unusual physical strength and, so far as I can judge at this distance of time, great intellectual strength. He rose at four o'clock in the morning and the hours that followed till eleven at night were fully occupied with the duties of his position. He denied himself all social life; his one passion was his school. None but a very strong man physically could have endured the strain. Bodily health and vigour are always important factors in the success of a teacher; they were essential to the success of the system with which Dr. Tassie identified

himself. A delicate man, however high his mental endowments, would have been unequal to the task. None of his pupils can ever forget his stately presence, his dignified demeanor, his firm and manly tread. To see him as he walked along the street, holding his cane lightly in the middle, with the easy grace of one who was conscious of his position and authority was to know that here was no ordinary man.

But back of that physical grace and strength was the man, with his high sense of justice, his industry, his thoroughness, his conscientiousness, his absence of all that belongs to the *spy*. He had the genius that comes from boldness in making decisions and in following what he thought he could do to the end. Perhaps the outstanding feature of his character that impressed us was force—physical and intellectual. He was an autocrat in everything over which he had control. He demanded of his boys, truth, thoroughness, industry, perseverance, manliness. These were qualities he possessed himself, and though his pupils stood in awe of him, and few loved him, he did not fail to impress the same qualities upon hundreds who were educated under his direction. Scores of men who were once Tassie boys have spoken to me of their school days, and I have yet to hear one who was not impressed by the strength of his character and grateful for its influence. The power of a great personality, though it had many limitations, was the principal explanation of the success of William Tassie's school.

2. But in addition to this, account must be taken of the type of school he established—a type attractive to the parents who sent their sons there—a type, however, that seems impossible in the educational system of our time.

When Tassie took up his great life work in Galt, he decided—in spite of a wretched equipment and a mere handful of scholars—to make an experiment that had never been attempted in Canada and perhaps nowhere in the English-speaking world. To an Ontario Grammar School he would strive to impart the character of one of the great public schools of England, such as Eton, or Rugby, or Marlborough. On the one hand, it was a part of the educational system of the Province, governed as any other Grammar School by trustees elected by the people, visited by government inspectors, supported by public funds, while its teachers



must possess the qualifications demanded by the educational authorities. So far it did not stand apart from many another school, but what gave it a place all its own was the effort to follow the methods of the English public schools that have contributed so much to the national life of Great Britain.

In bringing this ideal into effect he found it necessary to introduce certain departures from the methods followed elsewhere.

His school must be open to boys alone, not to boys and girls. He could not hope that parents would send their sons away from the restraints of home if they were taught in the same classes as the girls. I doubt, too, whether Tassie's severity of discipline, though confined to the one sex, would have been possible if the other had been present. It seems to have been his conviction, also, that the sexes could best be educated separately. There were certain traits of character—truth, courage, honour, manliness—that he imagined would not be so pronounced if co-education existed. On the other hand, it must be admitted that co-education is likely to cultivate virtues no less important. He despaired of no one. No boy was too idle or too mischievous to be taken on trial. Many a lad did he receive who had thrown off the control of parents and teachers alike, but it was always with the clear understanding that he must obey to the strict letter, and that any failure in obedience would be followed by a penalty, not so much to fit the offender as to fit the offence, a radical error, in my judgment, in all disciplinary or punitive methods. These, then, were the aims and the ideals that made it exclusively a boys' school.

That the trustees assented to it shows how free a hand he had. For it was hardly fair to the girls in the town. The resources of Galt were not adequate to the support of two Grammar Schools of high grade. Consequently there was a Girls' School, with a lady principal, a separate staff of teachers and altogether an equipment inferior to that of the other. The education they received was not on the same high level of their brothers and friends, and the assertion of their claim to something better was one of the reasons that brought about Dr. Tassie's retirement from Galt. But he was right in his view that such a school as he contemplated could not be carried on successfully under a system of co-education.

In the next place, the boarding house system became necessary if pupils were to be drawn from a distance. Anxious parents had their minds set at rest by the knowledge that their sons, in school and out of school, were under the headmaster's eye. It was a tremendous burden to carry. But he undertook it, and did so on his own responsibility, asking only the moral support of the trustees, and requiring none of his assistants to give any part of their time to this work. Into his own house, one of the largest dwellings in town, were taken forty or forty-five boys who were crowded together in a way that was good neither for their health nor their studies. Other houses, not far from his own, were authorized, in each of which twenty or twenty-five pupils were accommodated. Gentlewomen were in charge of them, but Dr. Tassie was over all, visited them regularly and assured himself that all was done according to his own mind.

As I have said, his working-day began several hours before the boys were awake. By eight o'clock he had walked half a mile to the school and was ready to give special instruction to the matriculation class. The rest of the day up to the tea hour was spent in teaching and administration. Then in the evening the boys gathered for the study around the dining table, while he sat at his desk in the corner. The hours of study were closed with family prayer and he retired. Then Mrs. Tassie appeared, the strain was relaxed and there was more of the atmosphere of a happy home. The last act of the day was when she passed through the rooms and turned out the lights, often carrying a box from which she handed a stick of candy to each as he lay in bed. Mrs. Tassie was the friend of all and held not only their respect but affection. If they were sick she nursed them, and for every ailment had some old-fashioned remedy to administer. She lives in the memory of the old boys as truly as her husband. Without a helpmeet such as she was, his boarding house must have been a failure. For many years before her death, it was the practice of one of these boys, now a Pittsburg manufacturer, to send her as a Christmas gift a cheque for \$100. No wonder that when her husband died, leaving her in penury, the old boys purchased for her a substantial annuity to make her closing days comfortable.

Minor peculiarities of the school arrangements were the adoption of two short half-holidays each week—Wednesday and Saturday afternoons—instead of the full Saturday, and the prohibition of such games as baseball and lacrosse. Cricket and football were alone regarded as suitable for young gentlemen. And what was somewhat unusual in that day, physical training was emphasized. A good gymnasium was provided, and rifle and company drill was given under the instruction of a retired army officer.

3. I have now to speak of the discipline that was enforced in the school. Nowhere is the contrast between the past and the present more marked than here. Yet the reputation of the school was due in no small measure to its discipline.

To begin, he acted on the principle that it was within his power to expel any pupil whose presence he deemed to be undesirable in the best interests of the school. It was not necessary that he give reasons for expelling a boy. Sometimes a definite charge could not be made, but he claimed absolute power to send any one away if it seemed to him best. And that authority was nowhere questioned. One day he found a boy reading a novel of an improper kind. He simply asked the lad where he had obtained it, and was told that it had been bought at one of the three bookstores in town. When the pupils assembled for morning prayers Dr. Tassie announced that hereafter any boy seen in this man's shop would be at once expelled. It was not necessary that he buy anything, his mere presence would be followed by that penalty. With one word he had cut off a large part of the man's trade, but it was recognized that his right to do so was absolute.

Long experience had made him understand almost intuitively the faults of boys. Rarely did he make a mistake. At times he seemed swayed by prejudices, as when a boy with a constant smile on his face received his full meed of punishment on the general principle that a smile was meant to conceal evil within. But his seeming prejudices were more likely to be an unconscious inference from a wide experience.

The instrument of discipline, except in the two upper forms, was a liberal use of the strap. The punishment was the same, differing only in degree, for all kinds of offences. If a pupil

failed to decline a Latin noun correctly he was strapped. If his handwriting was careless, if he was late in arriving at school, if he was guilty of some moral offence, he was flogged. His was a method that would not be tolerated in our time. And yet I am not prepared to condemn it entirely. Again let the old boys testify. Now that they are men, many of them advanced in life, they will not be found complaining of the harsh treatment meted out to them. Perhaps his way was unfair to the dull boy who was doing his best. And it did not recognize the fact that a few had special aptitudes, a touch of genius, and ought not to be forced into the common mould. But it was his aim to require only what the average boy could reasonably be expected to do, and then no excuse for failure to do one's part could be accepted. It may serve as an illustration of the length to which his discipline was carried if I relate an incident, recalled to me a short time ago by the delinquent himself. Like his brothers before him he was sent to Tassie's school. Arriving at the station he engaged a carter to take his trunk to the Doctor's house where he was to board, and rode with him on the wagon. The man put down the trunk at the side door, telling him that he was not allowed to go farther, and leaving the boy to carry the trunk alone up the stair leading to the rooms above. Half way up the trunk slipped and crashed to the bottom. Just as he was about to make a second effort a man opened the inner door, and without making any enquiry or uttering a word, flogged him. This was his introduction to Dr. Tassie. "Unjust," you say, "enough to crush the spirit of a high-minded boy." Surely it was unjust. Yet he reasoned that this boy must be taught to be careful even in such matters as lifting a trunk.

As to disputes among the boys, it was impossible that such should not come, and many a fight took place. I do not know what his views were, but there was a suspicion that he was not eager to interfere, that at such times he kept out of the way, believing that they could settle such quarrels best among themselves and see that fair play was given. When the way was clear it was no unusual thing to see a ring formed and two boys contending with each other in orthodox fashion, but always with the understanding that they should be friends again when the battle was over.



4. But I have yet to touch upon his work as a teacher. And Dr. Tassie's most ardent admirer would hardly claim that any large part of the distinction he gained was due to his ability as a teacher, though he was not only Principal but took his full share of the work of teaching. In his book "My Inner Life," a very distinguished, in many respects the most distinguished of the pupils of the school, Dr. Beattie Crozier, of London, England, has passed a somewhat severe judgment upon his failure to give the student any true appreciation of the literature he was studying. In certain respects, Dr. Crozier's criticisms are valid. But Dr. Crozier is unjust to his memory in not recognizing his thoroughness, the mastery that he demanded of the principal parts of Latin and Greek grammar and of heathen mythology, and the grasp that was gained of an extensive vocabulary that did not easily slip from memory. The great defect of his method was that he required his pupils through all the forms to get by heart what the text books contained and to repeat it verbatim. There was no discussion of the matter of the lesson, no talking it over by pupils and teacher, no attempt to reach the boy's mind and help him to appreciate it. There was strength in his method when limited to the junior forms but it was weakness itself when carried higher.

It was when the school was at the meridian of its prosperity that the decline suddenly came. The Department of Education established yearly tests—the Intermediate Examinations. Dr. Tassie sent up many pupils, but only a few passed. At once the quality of the work done was questioned. Criticism applied at one point was soon extended to all. There was a demand for co-education. He could no longer enforce his discipline, and in a very few years his reputation had vanished, and pupils no longer came from outside. When he resigned he founded a school in Toronto, and then became Principal of the Peterborough Collegiate Institute. But there remained little of the Tassie of former days, and in 1886 he passed to his rest.

His was a life of severe toil, mingled with but little pleasure. He gave himself unreservedly to one thing, and his joy was in seeing his purpose fulfilled. If to some his career appears narrow and limited in influence, to others with a larger knowledge of those who were trained under his care he must always remain

one of the strongest influences of his day in fashioning the future life of this land.

In setting down these impressions of Dr. Tassie and his school, I cannot refrain from yielding to what has become a habit with me and pointing the moral. It is with mingled feelings that I consider his career as a whole. It had so much of strength, so much of weakness.

The power of a great personality has been already emphasized. But the true development of that personality was checked by the circumstances in which he found himself and of which he allowed himself to become the victim. The multitude of tasks that he undertook, many of them purely routine, gave him no time to think, to study or to read. As the years passed he seems to have lost the desire, perhaps even the power of adding to past attainments. The older pupils began to suspect that he was not a highly educated man in any department, and when his forcefulness declined, as was inevitable, there was no gain to match in the growth of knowledge and intellectual power. The man was injured in the very means he employed to reach his height of distinction, and when he gained it, it was because he had been unjust to himself that his fall was so sudden. In one way I cannot but admire him with his back to the wall refusing to admit the new situation created by yearly examinations, declaring that his school existed to impart a good education and a strong character, but with a different mental life I have little doubt that he would have adapted himself to the new conditions and have maintained the prestige of the school.

The longer I teach the more I am convinced of the necessity of the teacher reading and studying beyond what the class work demands, if he is to maintain his own interest or quicken the interest of his students. The circle of his knowledge must extend, at least in some one department, far beyond text books and manuals. I have the most vivid impression to-day of Mr. Chase, the teacher of history at Galt, and the manner he introduced us to J. R. Green's History of England that had just appeared. Never before had the history of England been written like this. Soon the enthusiasm of the teacher was shared by us and we were reading it with the interest of a romance. Now, if the teacher is to save his own soul, he must read, and read

the great works upon the subjects in which he chooses to specialize.

May I be allowed to utter another warning from the story of his life. Dr. Tassie died very poor. And yet he must have enjoyed a large income from his salary and boarding house. It was understood that he was lavish in his givings, but he knew not how to save. Now the position of a teacher—especially a high school teacher, is such that much is expected of him. But salaries are small, and unless he is careful he is not likely to increase his bank account. It is all the more important that he should practice economy and that he should be not niggardly but thrifty. I do not know a more pitiable sight than that of a minister or teacher retired from active work but dependent for subsistence upon the gifts of relatives or friends. Pension funds are so far good, but they cannot make up for personal savings.

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## MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION

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MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION, APRIL 25, 1916.

OPENING ADDRESS BY J. SQUAIR, B.A.

The world has lived through another terrible year since we last met. The self-inflicted horrors that humanity has endured have been prodigious. And no one is able to tell when the end is to be. The race is plunged in murder, hatred and suspicion. The forces which a few years ago we considered as making for peace have been paralysed. The elements of the nations which might have been regarded as pacific have been silenced by the din of war. Poets have composed songs of hate, professors have signed manifestoes in favour of warlike effort, preachers have breathed out the harsh notes of international discord, and industry has turned from the manufacture of ploughshares to the making of mortars and bombs.

Many surprises have fallen upon us. The supposedly mild German has turned out to be a fierce barbarian, who invades countries which he promised to regard as neutral, burns their cities, bombards their churches, slays non-combatants by land or sea and ravishes defenceless women. Shades of Kant and Schiller, ye have no doubt veiled your faces in the presence of the exultations of the spirits of Old Fritz and Bismarck! The reversion of Germany to a lower level is disheartening. But we are relieved to know that the surprise offered by the French nation is quite as cheering as the German surprise is depressing. Many had grown accustomed to think of Frenchmen as frivolous and pleasure-loving, and it was feared that in the hour of trial they might not prove stable. But these fears were unfounded. When the shock came they stood like adamant. The *union sacrée* bound together Catholic, Protestant, anticleric, royalist, republican, socialist, anarchist in one bond of brotherhood. The



Jewish rabbi has said prayers for the dying Catholic, the Catholic priest has conducted service for groups of Protestant soldiers, and the Protestant pastor has officiated for unbelievers. Orthodox priest and heretical schoolmaster have vied with each other in deeds of heroism. The *poilu* is found in all ranks and conditions; the peaceful country *curé*, the shop clerk, the *paysan*, the *boulevardier*, the student, actor and man of letters have all performed prodigies of valour, and alas many of them have fallen!

If the Frenchman has surprised the world by his firmness at the Marne and Verdun, the Briton, home-bred and colonial, has surprised everybody by his great audacity. To him has fallen the performance of the most romantic adventures. His exploits at Gallipoli, although unsuccessful from a military standpoint, cannot be forgotten as long as the race lasts. The expedition to the Tigris is another of those things which fill us with unbounded admiration for the dashing bravery of British men. The highest commanders do not seem to have measured up to our expectations, but the rank and file with the company, regimental and divisional officers have apparently been superb. The spread of wealth and comfort among the people has not yet ruined the breed. It is clear that many of our notions regarding ethnology, economics and the like will have to be changed. The idea that Frenchmen have *élan* but no staying power, that Englishmen are staid and stern but not enthusiastic, cannot be held any longer. Ypres, St. Julien, Verdun, have given the lie to all that.

Naturally in circumstances so grave, where France and England have been called on to make such a prodigious effort, the influence on universities and other schools has been very unfavourable. The schools of Europe are depleted. The great colleges have been turned into garrisons and hospitals. Learning is almost at a standstill. Teachers and students are at the front.

Only in a less degree is the same true of our own country. Long lists of our students have gone to the front. Many more are on their way thereto. Naturally the minds of all have been disturbed and turned from thoughts of peace. The grim business of war tends inevitably to absorb the attention of all and will do so in increasing measure until peace is re-established. It has even been suggested that schools and colleges should be closed as such and the buildings turned into garrisons and drill halls.

In the midst of these counsels let us not forget, for instance, that in Rheims where many of the buildings, including the great cathedral, have been devastated, cellars and basements have been turned into school-rooms for the instruction of children.

As we look towards the future believing that peace will come, we naturally wonder what that future will be. It seems certain that for a long time our relations with Germany will not be cordial. The nation that could let loose the dogs of war for purposes of aggression will not be loved by the rest. Never again, probably, will the present generation of English-speaking people have faith in German good-will. We shall not be proud, as many have been, to say that we are the imitators of German methods. As we went too far in the past in the praise of German ways, so now we may be tempted to go too far in our hatred and contempt of them. The pendulum is bound to swing far. But if the Germans are distinguished for thoroughness to a greater extent than we, let us not hate that useful quality, merely because the Germans may possess it. Rather, let us steal the enemy's thunder. Let us endeavour to excel him in all points where he has real strength. I for one am not prepared to admit that he ever possessed all the qualities attributed to him. The world is always prone to accept "bluff" at its face value, and German "bluff" has for a good while played a large role. Let us not imitate him in this point, but let us learn to see through his "bluff," let us measure him at his real value and not be too proud to learn from him wherever he may have merits.

Certain practical points involved in our relations with Germany will have to be settled after the war. Shall we trade with Germans, and if we do, on what terms? No doubt we shall have less trade than formerly. We shall of course try to protect ourselves, and it will be no easy problem to strike at German trade in a way which will not be detrimental to ourselves. No doubt also we shall try to have more trade with our Allies, particularly France.

A second point will be preparedness for war. Some form of military service for our youth seems inevitable. What shall it be?

A third point is, what shall we do with the German language in our schools? Shall we neglect and discourage it?

The tendency will be in that direction. Few English-speaking people in Canada have ever learned to use it, and in the future there will be fewer still. But it will be of advantage to the nation if we are not too extreme. The peace and prosperity of Canada will be helped by the presence of people who have command of more than one language. As regards the French language and literature there will doubtless be an increase of zeal in prosecuting their study. Let us hope that there will be more good teaching and learning than before. What is wanted is more serious application and more time devoted to them, particularly by boys. The study of French in our schools begins too late in the life of the pupil. An attempt should be made to have the age for commencing French reduced by two or three years. Let us not forget the importance of a knowledge of French to Canadians in a national way as well as in all other respects. If more English-speaking Canadians would take the trouble to learn French a good many of our political difficulties would disappear, or at least be mitigated. I am severing my connection with the teaching profession. I have come to the end of my career and I leave you this as my last word. While our brave brethren of France, England and Canada are defending you and me at Verdun and St. Elloi, let us do something at home to foster the spirit of union between nations which have so bravely defended honour and liberty on the bloodstained fields of Europe.

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*THE FIRST MONTH IN BEGINNING FRENCH.*

R. KEITH HICKS, M.A.

I propose to examine how we can modify the more advanced theories of modern language teaching to make them fit the conditions under which we work, and achieve the purpose that we have in mind.

It will be well, therefore, to state, for the sake of mutual understanding, what I consider those conditions and that purpose to be. Practically and, perhaps, cynically, we can answer the second question in one word—Matriculation. As to conditions: we begin with large classes and teach them as though the whole mass were to be candidates for higher education. Our work commands little public respect because we do not teach our pupils to speak French. Often it commands little respect from the pupils because they realize their inability to understand the simplest spoken French, and sometimes because we let it be believed that French is an easy study. Whereas it is by far the most difficult of the Romance group. Our results have little commercial value in most cities of this Province and indeed the language has not wholly freed itself from its Victorian reputation as a polite and somewhat effeminate accomplishment. We have suffered in the past from the criticism of those who tell us that the European child can speak and write and sell his language for a price; and we suffer still from professorial critics who say that our pupils have little grammatical and no oral knowledge of the language.

Whatever truth there be in these criticisms, I think we may admit that Modern Language Teaching falls short of the attainable standard. Whether we ascribe the shortcoming to lack of incentive for our pupils, to poor linguistic attainments in the majority of teachers, or to the time spent in learning to spell our own language, it is our duty to look for those means of improvement that are within the scope of practical teaching.

Now firstly, we fail if we make matriculation our single goal. We fall at the starting post, ignominiously tripped by our own narrow materialism. What, then, shall we set as our object?



A speaking knowledge? Speaking is a matter of long habit and constant practice. Somewhere Professor Grandgent calculates that under ordinary High School conditions a student can get some six hours speaking in the course of four years, if the teacher is respectfully silent most of the time and nothing else is considered at all. I think we can set aside, then, the ambition of practical linguistics for the average child at the hands of the average teacher.

A reading knowledge? Undoubtedly, but what should that mean? I think we can see what it too often does mean, when we read a dialect story without knowledge of the dialect. What is Burns to one who has never heard the Scots, or Brer Rabbit without an echo of the Darksy talk in our ears; or Tennyson's Northern Farmer with no other aural assistance than his poor attempts at phonetic representation; or Captain Brassbound unless you know the Cockney. So may we not add—a reading knowledge with a sense of hearing for the sounds and rhythm of the sentences we read? There is such a thing as silent pronunciation.

Writing? Not as a stylist, not as the classical student writes his Latin Prose, but primarily as an aid to our reading comprehension, and as reinforcing the habit-forming aspect of our teaching, and most especially against the day when some of our pupils shall build on the foundation we are to make for them.

And there is another objective which for the majority of our pupils is the bull's eye of our target. I mean the implanting of respect for language as the expression of ourselves, as part of the human organism, mental and physical, as an art to be assiduously cultivated, and an interest to be continually discussed. We should aim at teaching French in such a way as to make our pupils feel that the *English* language is in their keeping and that from their mouths it will pass to their children a little better or a little worse; we should teach them to watch its growth in sound and vocabulary, checking what is obviously decay, and welcoming what is strong and apposite in its novelty.

But to approach the detail of the initial work as affecting the final output. Once we admit the principle of mouth and ear, the first year of a language assumes an enhanced importance; when we go further and adopt the practice of making ear and

mouth co-equal with, or even superior to, the eye in our preparation for written examinations—and I believe them to be superior—the first year becomes of paramount importance. A college president—I quote through Miss Ballard who does not name him—has said, “If you wish to interest pupils in any branch of study, you must contrive somehow early to give them skill.”

Now in language teaching *for children* the only kind of skill that can be imparted early is skill in hearing, and, in the majority of cases, reproducing, sounds. How shall we proceed—and what is the setting? For there must be a setting for all study if it is to command interest and inspire labour. We can well preface our phonetic introduction by some simple account of the French people, their country, history, and language—or, of course, we can arrange to have the history teacher do it for us.

I should advise also a general introduction to language study, asking pupils to dissect the spoken *sounds*, not the syllables, of different English words, and proceeding from this to elementary physiological analysis in the manner of Jespersen, with which you are doubtless all familiar. Let us be quite clear as to the object of these preliminary lessons. They have no examination value, as things are now, but they do serve to make the idea of language a concrete reality, and when we apply them to the foreign language, they do connect this reality with a definite group of people having their own manner of life, their own ways of thinking, and their own means of expressing their thoughts. And, apropos of this, the more clearly we impress on our pupils that there are other ways and ideas than those of Beyondville, Ont., and that some of these other ideas and ways are nearly as good, the better for the civilization of our own country. So then we have, if successful, awakened a degree of curiosity as to the French language. We may even, later, begin to mould this vague inquisitiveness to the clear lines of definite enquiry. Our class begins to wonder what manner of language this may be, the words of it and the sounds of it. And we are nearly ready to enlighten them. But before doing so let us stress most emphatically the need for listening very carefully to each word, each syllable, and advise them to check the natural tendency to substitute an English sound that is nearly but not quite the same.

As to the best method of presenting the first spoken French to the class, it is hard to make any definite statement; but all will admit that this first impression is vastly influential. We can begin with action, or with objects, or with vowels, or, if we want to do a lot of harm, with the printed page. My own inclination, but I cannot claim practical experience for it, is that the best way to begin would be a few simple sentences, to be repeated many times in the early lessons, their meaning explained in action and in English, and the repetition varying as little as possible in rhythm, and pitch, and pronunciation. This is the method adopted in Grandgent's elementary language books—French and Italian—and I found an interesting comment on it in an article entitled at some length, "My struggle with the Italian Language and the Morals I Drew from it for the Teaching of Mathematics" (School Review, XV, page 255—J. W. A. Young). The whole method of course is intended only for adult minds, but there are points that we can adopt for our own practice, one of which is the above mentioned influence of first impressions; which, I may add, is particularly strong for sound, making it essential that the pupil shall hear no bad French till he has heard all the good French we can give him. The writer adds an interesting analogy from the building of a house, which, he says, is more easily comprehensible to one who sees a house than to one who is introduced successively to a brick, a board, a pipe, a plumber, and so forth. If our own French is not good enough to set this model, by all means let us use a gramophone, which has the advantage of unswerving faithfulness to its original utterance.

Let us be quite clear as to the purpose of these introductory phrases. They are not to be repeated by the class for some time, but are intended to accustom the ear to the general impression of spoken French, and to set a problem in audition, for the solution of which we now proceed to outline a method.

The next stage of teaching must be connected very definitely with the introductory lesson in general phonetics as outlined by Jespersen, and we shall now state the essential differences in sound-production and sound-modification as between the two languages. We shall continue with the vowel triangle, preferably using the international symbols, and being very careful to present it in digestible quantities. There is nothing more intellectually

alarming than large masses of the unknown. I have seen it suggested that we use coloured chalks for the phonetic script and continue to do so through the course. If the teacher has some little skill in drawing, much help may be rendered by showing the mouth sections as given in any elementary book on phonetics, though the value of these will depend on our having induced the pupil to make his own experiments for English.

It is with the vowel triangle that we call for the first attempt at reproduction; let this be combined with aural practice by asking the class to recognize any particular vowel from a spoken or gramphoned sentence. It will be well to avoid discussion of nasals till you have taught them, using a separate triangle at first, then establishing their relation with orals. If vowels can be treated without reference to related English vowels, so much the better, but it may be necessary to use this rather dangerous support; stressing the difference in tenseness, purity, and tongue position.

The next step will be practice in words and here I would suggest selecting, from the first few exercises of the grammar, such words as do not require new consonantal symbols, unless you have decided to limit your use of the script to the vowels alone.

And now I want to make a plea for the use of the script until the book is in our students' hands and the pronunciation habit is fairly established, for the following reasons:

1. We are teaching by sound, but for many pupils we must use sight as an auxiliary. Now it is nearly impossible that a group of symbols in the normal script should not suggest primarily its English value, which the pupil must discard in favour of a newer and weaker association. I have proved this many times by having a class of university students read a passage, (i) from phonetic script, after hearing it on the gramophone and from me; (ii) in normal script, under the same conditions. The difference was, roughly, 40 per cent.

2. The script presents certain elements of difficulty, which are valuable in holding the attention and providing enough mental stimulus to destroy the feeling that the thing is too easy to demand effort.



3. In our later teaching we shall constantly need to refer to *sounds* and represent them on the board. This can only be done by using some system of phonetic script and, if we are to use any, it is surely easiest to employ the one generally written and understood.

As an instance of what I mean, suppose we are teaching "appeler." The ordinary method leaves the student under the impression that for some arbitrary reason the "l" is doubled. It is set down, unexplained, as an orthographic change; but behind, and causing, that orthographic change is a very distinct vowel change, which we need to present orally and visually. Then the problem is—how do we spell *apeel*?

4. We wish to establish a new set of speech and hearing habits, keeping in mind that imitation, though an aid to all and, for the favoured few, a sufficient instrument, is not to be the only means of implanting them. Now our old speech habits have resulted in a certain fixity of muscular movement, closely associated with visual and aural impressions, and when we stimulate the visual nerves, they are only too apt to set the speech organs moving according to the old speech habits, unless we at first associate new symbols with the new sounds. There is an exact parallel in the difficulty we all have in changing from English to French in the same sentence.

5. Numerous experiments have proved—they are described in the *Life and Labours of Sir Isaac Pitman*—that by using a phonetic alphabet it takes only a month to teach children to read with tolerable fluency and that they are thereby enabled, with very little practice, to read also the ordinary script.

The vowels once mastered, and perhaps the more difficult consonants, l, r, t, d, we can go back to our original sentences and discuss them from the point of view of stress and rhythm, calling for constant repetition till the child feels that the gap between his own rendering and the models is sensibly reduced.

And, if it is permitted to go beyond the limit of immediate practicalities, I want to draw your attention to Miss Cipriani's article on Phonetics and the Phonograph in the *School Review* for October, 1912. This teacher acquired a small phonographic outfit at a cost of some sixty dollars and used it in the following

way. (It should be stated that these were college students, but the method is adaptable to High School conditions.) Each student had a practice period five times a week, groups of four or five being assigned to each instrument. They learned first to hear and then to repeat with the records, an exercise that compels attention to the French stress group, in which the human voice is variable and, therefore, not so good a model. Then special points were considered, such as liaison, final consonants, etc. The next step was the reproduction of a record previously studied, and the criticism of it before the class in comparison with the original. A further exercise was provided by asking pupils to make a phonetic transcript of the record *as they heard it*, irrespective of rules for pronunciation. Miss Cipriani proceeded later to make her own records of a few simple stories, handing them to students with instructions to write them from the machine. Of course we could never apply this laboratory process to a large class of beginners, but I think we could easily deduce a method that would make a single phonograph greatly helpful by getting the class to repeat, after it and with it, a group of selected sentences, or by eventually using it for dictation, or by running a short passage and calling for a résumé of the subject-matter in French or English. No matter how we use it, the phonograph is invaluable as offering a limited number of selections that are really French and can be made familiar in sound and sense by constant repetition.

To sum up: In the first month we shall deliberately and carefully set before the children the task that they are asked to perform. We shall try to give them some elementary ideas on language in general, the way it is produced and the changes it is liable to undergo. We shall recognize that the ear is the first line of attack and support our efforts with directions as to muscular control; we shall use every means in our power to disconnect the sounds of spoken French from the sounds of spoken English; and finally we shall remember that the reading and writing that we do in our course are, in French no less than in English, merely substitutes for hearing and speaking.

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## GOTTFRIED KELLER'S GRÜNER HEINRICH.

PROFESSOR BARKER FAIRLEY.

Gottfried Keller is not the easiest writer to put into terms. Compared with the great German authors who preceded him he is remarkably free from intention and theory. Goethe, it might be said, standardized his personality; Schiller, his æsthetics. The difficulty with these two masters is not one of approach; the way in which to set about understanding them is clear. Goethe must be studied in the light of his biography. Schiller in the light of his ideals. Neither of these methods will take us far with Gottfried Keller. Some of his contemporaries were content to rhyme Keller with Muskateller and leave the rest to the reader. One of them writes:—

Und den ich besonders rühmen muss,  
Ist der Schweizer Gottfried Keller;  
Sein "Grüner Heinrich" ist Stückwerk zwar,  
Doch schmeckt er wie Muskateller.

And, indeed, in studying the mature work of this old town clerk of Zürich, one can only think of things weathered and autumnal, a basket of fruit, an ivy-covered wall, a bottle of old wine.

In the little that I have to say about Keller and particularly about the *Grüner Heinrich* I shall try to offend as little as possible the spirit of the man and of his work. There is no abstract thesis to be applied, no elaborate development to trace. What will be claimed for the "*Grüner Heinrich*" is its great personal value, for the understanding of Keller, as the soil in which his genius thrived and, for the understanding of Germany, its equally great impersonal value as one of the outstanding prose documents of the German temperament. Keller's relation to strictly German traditions is a matter about which one cannot be dogmatic, and I shall be content to indicate broadly where he seems to me, to align himself with the native tradition of the literature in which he is usually placed and where he appears to draw away from it.

Keller himself always protested against the notion of a Swiss literature. In the 1st edition of the *Grüner Heinrich*, written

before 1855, there is a conversation, later suppressed, in which he insists on the intellectual and artistic limitations imposed by the exclusiveness of smaller nationalities. "I know there are many of my countrymen," he writes, "who believe in a Swiss art and literature, yes, even in a Swiss science. But the *Alpenglûhen* and the *Alpenrosenpoesie* are soon exhausted, a few worthy battles are soon sung and to our shame we must take all our mottoes and inscriptions on public occasions from Schiller's *Tell*, which always supplies the best for the purpose."\* And some 25 years later in a letter to Frau Freiligrath he says in reference to an English appreciation of himself: "That essay, has only the one fault, that it treats my humble self as belonging specifically to Swiss literature; whereas I always oppose the idea that such a thing exists. For with all my patriotism, I am in earnest about this and am of the opinion that if any results are to be achieved, each must stand by the great language area to which he belongs."† Schiller, to whom Keller pays an ungrudging tribute above, remained his favourite throughout as—in his own words—"a great torso," whereas he found himself compelled to modify in the 2nd *Grüner Heinrich* the warm appreciation of Richter which he put into the first edition. About Goethe he grew increasingly silent, but I know no choicer appreciation in German or elsewhere than Keller's account of how he first made his acquaintance. He writes again in the *Grüner Heinrich*, that a pedlar left the complete works in his mother's house in the hope of selling them. There was no money to spare and the pedlar carried them off on his next visit. But in the meantime Keller had read them from end to end; he discovered their special values, entirely without knowledge of them, his mind filled with wonderment like Robinson Crusoe's, when he found the footprints in the sand. Keller's coolness, in later years, towards his distinguished fellow-countryman, C. V. Menes was undoubtedly due in part to the irritating habit of critics who were continually pairing these two as the shining stars in the Swiss constellations. There is no doubt, therefore, that Keller associated himself unreservedly with the larger literature of German-speaking Europe.

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\*ed. Ermatinger, vol. I, 50.

†Dec. 20th, 1880.



Most of us come to know Keller by way of the short stories. It is significant to note in connection with these that whilst they appear at first sight thoroughly typical of German methods and mind, it is almost invariably necessary to go outside of Germany in search of their deeper literary affinities. Professor Herford has written one of the warmest English appreciations of Keller. It only occupies two pages of a longer essay,\* but within those narrow limits the writer reaches out in turn to Meredith, Cervantes, Turgenev, as well as to J. F. Millet and to Shakespeare, in his attempt to characterize Keller's work. Inside of German literature the essayist only compares Keller with Auerbach and others in order to give him first place among these "painters of the peasant," a term which is, after all, not strictly in place here, for there is a very important difference between the dorf, the home of the peasant, and the kleinstadt in which Keller usually preferred to work. Other readers of the Swiss tales would not find it hard to supplement this list of foreign affinities. The story of Dietegen reads almost like a piece of Chaucer which has divested itself of its English couplets and put on a congenial foreign disguise. The Sieben Legenden are closer to Anatole France than anything else in German; indeed, the broadest of the seven, the Vitalis, is drawn from the same source as the better-known Thaïs of the Frenchman. Keller's bond with Meredith, already referred to, makes itself felt at every turn, in the sanity of his female characters, in his exposures of egoism, in his power of swerving into fine poetry at any point of the narrative. Strapinski, the tailor, is a wide counterpart of Ivan Harrington, the son of a tailor and the subtleties are by no means all on Meredith's side.

The essence of Keller's tales would seem in this light to point away from German influence or tradition. This is all the more noticeable in view of the ground-work of the stories, the raw material out of which they are worked up. No tales have a more thoroughly German setting. Remember the mediæval colour of Hadlaub or the study of the landlord and the cook at the Hotel zur Wage. Clearly, then, we have in Keller a complete type of mind, not to be summed up in a catch-

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\*Germany in the 19th Century. Vol. I, pp. 50-52.

word. The *Novellen* are German in substance, but the spirit that seems to play over them is harder to define, and when Keller leaves German territory—which he does in some of the *Legenden* and in part of the *Sinngedicht*—he appears to be not less at his ease abroad than at home. How is he to be classified? Is he German? or something not quite German: German-Swiss should we say? The *Grüner Heinrich* is the best answer to that question.

The great bulk of what is best in this long autobiographical story was written in Berlin in the early 50's. The whole was revised, and undoubtedly improved some 25 years later. One might be inclined to think that the work could not fail to suffer by being written in relative immaturity and revised in comparative old age, and it would be idle to deny that there are many standard tests which the book will not pass. But it is rich enough to live in spite of them. As a matter of fact, it gains enormously, as autobiography, through being written in the freshness of early manhood and, again, it owes far more to its later revision than the actual changes made in the text, since the whole book, as we now have it, has the poet's mature endorsement.

What the *Grüner Heinrich* does for Keller is to show far more convincingly than his poems or his letters that his entire growth as a writer has its root and nourishment in German tradition. If the *Novellen* sometimes appear in a more cosmopolitan light, there can be no such illusion about the *Grüner Heinrich*. Its genealogy is the long line of autobiographical novels reaching back to the Romantics, to Richter and to Goethe. The *Grüner Heinrich* ought to establish itself with all readers of German as a necessary supplement to *Wilhelm Meister* and they should together be regarded as the two great novels of their class in a literature not rich in great novels but peculiarly given to this particular type, the *Entwickelungsroman*. *Wilhelm Meister* with its rational scrutiny of a wide experience, its constructive thought, its emotional reserve, its objectivity, has rightly stood for a century as typical of Goethe and his age. It is an impressive monument erected to the best traditions of enlightenment. It falls short of being typically German by its lack of personal emotion, of pervasive individuality, and it is precisely here that the *Grüner Heinrich* may be said to supplement it.

It is customary to regard Heinrich von Ofterdingen as the truest expression of German Romanticism, and, if we draw a narrow circle round the original *Athenaeum* group it is perhaps legitimate to concede Novalis a certain validity inside of it. If, on the other hand, we look for what is permanent and invigorating in the Romantic contribution to German life, I do not know where we should turn, if not to the Grüner Heinrich for an expression of it. Here we have an extraordinarily truthful revelation of what the Romantics persistently stood for, the free expression of personality, its development from within. Wilhelm Meister is, in the essential spirit, rational and impersonal. Keller's book is throughout temperamental, irrational.

For this reason alone it is a difficult book to discuss. It is as impossible to analyze its plot as to discover a geometrical pattern in the winding up of a river. Indeed, it has not plot, but merely a progress. Its only unity lies in the personality of the hero, whose career we witness from infancy to manhood, inwardly, in his frank and unsparing analysis of his own motives, outwardly in the changing mirror of his surroundings, his long succession of strange acquaintances, his contact with the tradition-steeped institutions of his community. It is just possible to distinguish between these two elements in the book and with a little quotation they can perhaps be illustrated.

For the student of the child there can be few works of more convincing value than this. The first half has a religious unity of its own, beginning with the earliest recollections of the boy Heinrich and ending with the frank discussion of orthodoxy at the time of his confirmation. In the *Novellen* Keller practices such elusive brevity that his studies of childhood are apt to be forgotten in the wealth of external detail. They cover a few pages in all—the play of Sale and Brenchev, the touching study of Dietegen and the *Tanzlegendchen*. We have only the Grüner Heinrich to tell us of Keller's wonderfully rich memory of his own childhood and particularly of his religious experience.

His earliest recollections are thoroughly characteristic. "When the bell was pealed in the twilight, my mother would speak of God and teach me to pray. I asked: 'What is God. Is it a man?' and she replied: 'No, God is a spirit.' The church roof faded gradually in gray shades, the light climbed

up the tower, till at last it only sparkled on the golden weather-cock, and one evening I found myself possessed of the firm faith that the weather-cock was God. . . . But when one day I was given a picture-book in which was reproduced a splendidly coloured tiger in a dignified sitting posture, my notion of God transferred itself by degrees to this. But I expressed no opinion on these; they were entirely inward representations and only when the name of God was mentioned there hovered before my mind, first the dazzling bird and then the handsome tiger. Later a nobler conception, if not a clearer picture entered my thoughts.”\* He learns from the Lord’s Prayer that “God must be a being with whom at least a reasonable word could be spoken, more readily than with those animal forms.”†

It is in this mood that Keller takes us through the phases of his inner development. Profoundly serious and pre-occupied at bottom, he is in turn dry, whimsical, satirical, astringent, never shrinking from what seems to him to be true, never accepting a bias from what lies outside of himself. His mother, he tells us, was “of a simple and sober mind, not at all what would be called a woman of warm piety, simply God-fearing. Her God was not the satisfier and fulfiller of a host of vague, urgent, spiritual needs, but, simply and clearly, the guardian and sustaining father. Providence. . . . I never heard her speak of the fervent love of God.”‡ The boy does not disparage this faith, but it fails to satisfy his spirit fully. He is a prey to odd impulses. He is unable to say grace at table when his mother wishes him to; he is seized with a desire to call God abusive names, which he is particularly in the habit of doing before falling asleep at night. In both of these ways, we see the reaction of the individual against stereotyped forms of religion. The formula of prayer begins to offend him; the rational notion of God arouses his antagonism. He finds a measure of solace in a neighbouring curiosity shop, painted in the manner of a Dutch master. Here he is able to observe a congregation of superstitious peasants, Jews and unbelievers, in contact with whom his own proclivities begin to emerge. His description of the two so-called atheists is very significant.

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\*Gesammelte Werke, vol. I, p. 36.

†Loc. cit., p. 37.

‡Loc. cit., p. 45.



"The one, a simple, laconic carpenter, who had already made and nailed up many hundreds of coffins, was a worthy fellow; he would say now and then briefly that he believed as little in an eternal life as that we could know anything of God. For the rest, a rude or mocking word never crossed his lips. He smoked his pipe comfortably and made no resistance, when the women folks beset him with voluble attempts at conversion. The other was a tailor, well on in years, with grey hair and a capricious good-for-nothing heart. Whilst the former kept quiet and passive and only seldom came out with his dry confession of faith, the other behaved aggressively and found a pleasure in offending believing souls with crude doubts and denials, coarse jokes and profanations. . . . When he died," Keller concludes, "it was with such faint-heartedness and contrition, howling and chattering of teeth and calling for prayer that the good folk celebrated a splendid triumph, whilst the carpenter planed his last coffin which he intended for himself just as calmly and undismayed as he had once planed his first."\*

Succeeding chapters present in greater detail this breach with spiritual formalism and routine. There is no attempt at a system; the inner consistency of the events only reveals itself slowly upon repeated perusal, unconsciously, as it were, for, as has been well said, Keller only seems dimly to realize how much he has put into his work. The religious preoccupation is held for a time in the background. Meanwhile a grave social misfortune descends on the boy. He is dismissed from school, as the scapegoat of an escapade, which he had not led, but simply drifted into. With all his subjectivity, Keller is too much of a German to play the outlaw. Far from taking pleasure in being thrust outside of the pale, he sees only his own loss. He does not reject the institution that has shown him its doors and assume a self-sufficiency which he does not possess. He criticizes simply the inflexibility and clumsiness of the social machine which works so crudely with sensitive material. And surely it is this compromise in Keller's thought—using the word in its best sense—which makes him so peculiarly representative. He says: "If a deep and lasting controversy prevails as to the justifiableness of the death-sentence, can we not legitimately include in this the

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\*Loc. cit. pp. 70-71.

question whether the State has the right to cut off from its system of education a child or a youth who is not actually insane. If in later life I get into a similar, more serious complication, with the same sort of conditions and judges, I must expect according to this procedure to have my head chopped off.”\*

The relation of such a passage as this to those already quoted is not hard to trace. Nor is it difficult to see how the inner life of the boy, which he is at all times at pains to cherish, warms in contact with nature. One of his earliest country expeditions, as a youthful militiaman leads to the following reflection: “Although we had nothing to say about landscape beauty and some perhaps never reached that point in their lives, the feeling for nature was fully alive in all of us, the more so as we in our merry procession formed a worthy accessory in the landscape and played an active part in it, avoiding in this way the sentimental longing of passive admirers of nature. For I only found out and experienced later that the idle and solitary enjoyment of nature in her might softens and consumes the spirit without satisfying it, whilst the vigour and beauty of nature strengthens and nourishes it, if we ourselves *are* and signify something outwardly in the landscape. And even then nature in her silence is frequently too powerful for us. Where there is no rustling stream or passing cloud we like to make a fire to stir her into activity, and at least to see her breathe a little. So we carried some brushwood together and fanned it to a flame. . . . in spite of the noonday heat of the sun, the added glow of the fire was agreeable to us; we were sorry to put it out when we went away.”†

Here we have surely an unusually intimate reading of man's closeness to nature; not, be it noticed, a mere sentimental expansion, but all the more penetrating for being acutely observant and critical. It may stand for that chastened Romanticism which gives the book its peculiarly broad significance.

The chapter describing his preparation for confirmation and his thoughts at the time of the ceremony, show that he had matured, if he had not formulated, his religious views. This section is one of the most interesting in the whole book as perhaps a quotation will show.

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\*Loc. cit., p. 77.

†Loc. cit., pp. 141-142.

"This (his father's) preference for festive days had been handed on to me, and when I stand on a hill-top on a Whitsunday morning in the crystal air, the ringing of the bells far below is for me the most beautiful music, and I have often wondered by what means if the church should come to be abolished this beautiful ringing might be kept up. But I could think of nothing that would not have seemed foolish and forced, and I always found in the end that the sentimental appeal of the bells lay precisely in the present condition of things when their notes reached me from afar out of the blue depths and told me that the people were gathered there in the old memories of their faith. Then, in my freedom, I respected these memories like those of my childhood and for the very reason that I was cut off from them the bells, which had rung for so many centuries in this fair, old land, affected me with a deep melancholy. I realized that we cannot 'manufacture' these things, and that transitoriness, the eternal succession of earthly forms makes sufficient provision of the poetic charm of sentiment (*Ich empfand, dass man nichts "machen" kann, und dass die Vergänglichkeit, der ewig Wandel alles Irdischen schon genugsam für poetisch sehnstüchtigen Reiz sorgen*)."\*

This passage seems to me to represent what is best and truest in the mature inwardness of the book and it is surely not too much to recognize in it the essence of German thought. There is no affinity here with English or French writers. The fascinating blend of conservatism and enlightenment, of illusion and disillusion, permanence and change marks a type of thought which I think you will agree with me in calling peculiarly German.

Turning to the more external aspect of the book, it would appear that Keller had consciously striven to enrich it with pictures of folk tradition and national ritual. First, there are the two larger Fastnachtspiele, probably the richest descriptions in German of historical pageants. In one of them, the Tell festival, Schiller's play is made the basis of a large folk-dance in which the population of a whole district takes part. The action moves from village to village, from toll-bridge to market-place, from the ploughing-field to the folk-meadow. The episode is narrated with humour as well as with idyllic charm. Tell's boy, in

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\*Loc. cit., pp. 360-361.

accordance with popular tradition, does not stand patiently for the apple to be shot off his head, but during the harangue takes it down and eats it. A smaller apple then takes its place, more consistent with his father's reputation as a marksman. Less carefully woven into the action of the tale, but much more brilliant as a feat of pure description is the Dürer celebration of 1840, which Keller arrived in Munich just too late to see. Among other more or less historical chapters are a couple of funerals, notably that of Heinrich's grandmother with its curious peasant customs of interminable handshaking and feasting, and perhaps more memorable still, though not authentic as autobiography, a performance of Faust, in which Heinrich is pressed into service as a meerkatze, but is so filled with wonder at the strange doings about him, the squabble behind the scenes, the elevated speech and movement before the footlights, the beauty of Gretchen, that he entirely forgets to go through his monkey antics at the right moment and sits down instead in the corner wondering what Faust sees in the mirror.

Rarer still are those in the profoundest sense historical chapters which seize on typical moments in common life involving a larger group of characters. I am thinking particularly of the mother's consultation with various family friends as to the advisability of Heinrich's becoming an artist, and again of Heinrich's leave-taking from his neighbour's on his departure to Munich. These episodes with their dignity and their homeliness are as nearly Homeric as modern prose fiction can be. Perhaps they are best described as cantos in a spiritual Odyssey. It will be clear from these few instances that the Grüner Heinrich is far more than a lyrical effusion without background. It contains an extraordinary gallery of portraits and folk-scenes. As we follow the hero through the rambling chambers of his experience we come upon no bare walls and empty spaces. Everywhere we find the richest mural decoration, stable, ancestral and full of voices.

In conclusion, a word more about Keller. The Grüner Heinrich differs vastly in style and in spirit from the Novellen. Its affinities are almost wholly German; its mood is predominantly egoistical, expansive and grave.



The Novellen are more freely humorous, mainly objective and always more reticent of their deeper meaning. But with all their subtle blending of flavour and their suggestion of wider kinship, they are undoubtedly a native growth free from all grafting and transplanting. The tenacity and stubbornness of Keller's autobiographical self, his early independence, and, as we learn also from other sources, his late maturity all point to a temperament which was unusually suspicious of any influence of interference. Keller may have owed something to Heine; his debt to his predecessors in the genre of the Grüner Heinrich, to Richter in particular, can be readily estimated; the subtle essence or aroma which his mature work distils he takes from no one. Its ingredients, as I hope I have shown, are all to be found in the Grüner Heinrich. When we remember that the best of this book was written under a certain pressure as part of the poet's apprenticeship, whilst the Novellen were mostly his "stillen Begleiter auf Spaziergängen und beim Glase Wein,"\* often for years, sometimes for tens of years, before they saw publication, it is difficult to refrain from the conviction that they were simply the slow crystallized deposit of the fluid content of the autobiography. Assuming that to be the case, we have in Keller, if anywhere in German, the natural emergence of the comic spirit, that wonderfully close bond between the Frenchman and the Anglo-Saxon, that underlying point of difference between the German and these his westerly neighbours. It is at least gratifying, if impracticable, to see in Gottfried Keller's work some indication in native German literature of tendencies which in spite of grievous impediments lead it into a common path with ours.

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\*Letter of April 8th, 1881.

# NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION

## SALT INDUSTRY OF ONTARIO.

BY F. P. GAVIN.

Saline deposits are known to exist in northern Manitoba, and in the Mackenzie basin, Alberta. These deposits, however, are not worked. The only salt deposits in Canada being exploited at the present time are in Ontario, at Goderich, Sarnia and Windsor. By far the greater proportion of the total product is prepared at Windsor. Hence this is a paper on "Windsor Salt" made by the Canadian Salt Co.

Recently a very considerable plant has been put into operation at Sandwich to produce allied chemicals, principally caustic soda and bleaching powder.

Salt in Ontario is obtained from a brine which has leached out of rock salt found in the Salina formation of the Silurian age. The formation in Ontario covers about 3,000 square miles and is bounded by a line passing through Kincardine, Wingham, Seaforth, London to Dutton. The line leaves Lake Erie about Ridgietown, passes north of Chatham and crosses Lake St. Clair to a point seven or eight miles below Sandwich. The formation extends westward through a large part of Michigan to Lake Michigan. Within the boundaries given it is believed the salt beds are of great thickness, one bed alone having a thickness of 200 feet. The average depth at which the salt is first encountered is about 1,000 feet.

### LOG OF WINDSOR WELL, No. 4.

	Thickness	Total Depth.
Drift . . . . .	133	133
Limestone . . . . .	922	1,055
Salt . . . . .	30	1,085
Limestone . . . . .	25	1,110
Break in record . . . . .	35	1,145
Salt . . . . .	75	1,220
Limestone . . . . .	100	1,320
Salt . . . . .	70	1,390
Limestone . . . . .	30	1,420
Salt . . . . .	252	1,672

The Windsor Salt Co. operates six wells at Windsor and two at Sandwich.

The wells are drilled out and protected by casings in the following way:

A 10-inch driven pipe is sunk through the drift to the rock and a watertight joint is made with the rock by means of a sharp-edged shoe on the lower end of this pipe.

Inside this pipe is sunk a 7-inch casing to the top of the salt bed in which operations are to be conducted. A tight joint is made with the rock at this point by means of a gasket either of rubber or of cotton batting.

Inside this casing is sunk a 3½-inch pipe to the bottom of the salt bed.

The well made in this way is dry and water must be supplied from the top to leach out the salt into a brine.

The brine is raised to the surface in two ways.

In the Sandwich plant water is pumped down the outer casing under a pressure of about 175 pounds to the square inch and brine forced up the inner pipe. A pressure of 175 pounds is needed to overcome the difference in weight of the column of water and the column of brine. This difference in weight is due to the greater density of the brine, its specific gravity being 1.205.

In the Windsor plant the brine is raised by means of compressed air. A ¾-inch pipe is lowered in the inner casing to a depth of about 700 feet, and is provided at the bottom with a spray nozzle. Air is forced down this pipe at a pressure of about 230 pounds to the square inch, and the entangled bubbles of air rising carry up the brine to the surface.

Sulphur water, *i.e.*, water with dissolved hydrogen sulphide is sometimes encountered. The first of these methods, *i.e.*, the water under pressure method, produces a strong outward pressure on all parts of the well and so prevents the entrance of sulphur water. The compressed air method, on the other hand, is in a way a pump producing a lowered pressure and so induces the entrance of stray currents of sulphur water. Accordingly the first method is the more satisfactory.

The brine obtained at Windsor and Sandwich is a saturated solution, having a specific gravity of 1.205 and containing 26.4 per cent. of solids.

When a new well is brought in the water is sent down the inner pipe in order to dissolve out the salt at the bottom of this pipe. When a good cavity is produced here the process is permanently reversed. The benefit of this cavity is to provide a space into which any tools or drills that might be accidentally dropped in to the pipe may fall on through out of the way and thus keep the pipe clear. Further, it provides a sump or well in which will be found, of course, a more completely saturated brine than is found at the top of the salt bed where the outer casing ends.

At the Windsor wells more or less communication occurs between the different wells. This communication is through crevices in the salt bed. A well was sunk within 120 feet of one which had been in operation for 20 years and passed through a solid bed of salt. It encountered no cavity, showing the cavity at the bottom of the first had not extended to the other well. In no case has this occurred.

#### COMPOSITION OF BRINE, SANDWICH.

	Per cent. of Solution.
Gypsum . . . . .	.3 to .4
Calcium Chloride .. . . .	.001 to .1
Magnesium Chloride . . . . .	.008 to .04
Sodium Chloride . . . . .	26. to 26.2

The brine found at Windsor and Sandwich is a relatively pure brine and is free from salts which are difficult to remove. No bromides or iodides are found. The Sarnia wells give small amounts of these. An investigation made by the chemists of the Canadian Salt Co. some time since to determine whether they were present in the Sarnia brine in commercial quantities showed that they were not.

The brine is passed into settling tanks where any sediment present falls out. Here a small quantity of lime is added to remove any trace of iron that might be present. The iron, if present, precipitates out as ferric hydroxide. The brine is heated by means of steam pipes to a temperature of 180°-200° F. and allowed to stand for 12 to 24 hours. A good proportion of the calcium sulphate is here precipitated to the bottom of the vat.



To make coarse salt, used extensively for packing, the brine is then passed to huge grainers or shallow tanks. Steam is passed through pipes along the sides of these grainers and the water gradually evaporated. The gypsum being the least soluble precipitates first and largely on the steam pipes. Next the salt comes down in large crystals. The evaporation is not carried to completion, thus leaving in solution a large part of more soluble constituents of the brine, viz., the calcium chloride and the magnesium chloride.

Fine-grained salt is the bulk of the product and is produced more rapidly than the coarse-grained variety by means of evaporation under a vacuum. As the evaporation under a vacuum takes place more rapidly and at a lower temperature than at atmospheric pressure this process takes less heat and hence is cheaper than the open pan process.

The vacuum pans are huge affairs with three compartments, a middle cylindrical one and a conical top and bottom section. In the middle section is a steam drum, through which pass tubes affording communication between the upper and lower compartments. Observation windows are placed at suitable points in these compartments. Brine is admitted to the upper and lower compartments to a proper level and steam to the middle compartment.

Two vacuum pans are connected in series and a vacuum equal to about 28 inches of mercury is maintained on the second effect pan by means of a condenser and air pump. The vacuum in the first effect pan is less.

When the steam is turned on the drum in the first pan, rapid evaporation accompanied by vigorous ebullition is produced in the surrounding brine. The vapour from this pan passes out of the top of the pan to the steam drum of the next pan and here, owing to the lower vacuum of the brine chamber produces evaporation with ebullition. The vapour from the first pan heats the second pan and in doing so is condensed. The water formed and any surplus vapour is removed by a condenser and pump, keeping a low pressure here also.

In these pans salt is crystallized out in small crystals and settles to the bottom.

In both pans the salt collects in the conical bottom and is removed through a valved receiving chamber.

In the first effect pan the gypsum present in solution precipitates out first and gathers on the tubes passing through the steam drum. In about 12 hours this gypsum has so caked on the tubes as to interfere with the efficiency of the system. Accordingly this pan must be shut down, and the gypsum removed. This is done by means of air-driven drills passed through the tubes.

That no time may be lost through this operation two first effect pans are provided working 12 hours alternately and connected alternately to the second effect pan. The latter pan works continuously since owing to the lower temperature of evaporation the gypsum does not cake out on the tubes.

From these vacuum pans the salt is passed through rotary dryers through which is passed a stream of hot air to remove the adhering water.

After this evaporation is carried to a certain point the liquid remaining becomes high in content of calcium and magnesium chlorides. This liquid, called bittern, is allowed to escape.

PER CENT. COMPOSITION BEFORE AND AFTER.

	Brine.	Bittern.
Gypsum . . . . .	.55	.40
Calcium chloride . . . . .	.05	.30
Magnesium chloride . . . . .	.01	.10

TYPICAL DAIRY SALT.

Gypsum . . . . .	.9%
Calcium Chloride . . . . .	.2%
Magnesium Chloride . . . . .	.01 to .03%
Iron . . . . .	none.
Insoluble compounds . . . . .	none.
Sodium Chloride . . . . .	98.9%

The salt contains a smaller per cent. of gypsum than brine because of the lesser solubility of the gypsum, and of the calcium and magnesium chlorides because of the greater solubility of these.

A salt that is entirely free from calcium or magnesium chlorides will not absorb water or cake. A salt with the composition given above is practically free from caking, but even at that more or less adhering of the crystals may occur. To

prevent this, salt companies sometimes add starch or talc. The Canadian Salt Co. has put on the market a very pure table salt under the name "Regal Salt," to which they have added  $\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. of magnesium carbonate. This prevents any adhering and gives a free running salt.

A dairy salt must be comparatively free from magnesium chloride as the latter gives to butter a bitter taste. Six-tenths per cent. of magnesium chloride is sufficient to give a perceptible taste. An ideal butter salt should not contain more than .02 per cent. of this salt. Windsor salt analyses show from .001 to .03 per cent.

At Sandwich the Canadian Salt Co., in addition to salt, produce also caustic soda and bleaching powder. The process, of course, is electrolytic.

The brine from the wells is passed first to settling tanks where the temperature is raised to about 20°-25° C. Any sediment from the wells settles out. Small quantities of lime are added to the brine to precipitate any iron. Raising the temperature assists in settling out the impurities.

The clear brine is then passed through a heater where the temperature is raised to 60° or 70° C. and thence to large concrete tanks for purification. The brine must be quite free from calcium or magnesium chlorides, as if these are carried over to the electrolytic cells trouble ensues. At the carbon electrodes small amounts of carbon dioxide are sometimes produced and if any calcium or magnesium salts are present in the electrolyte they are precipitated on the diaphragms as carbonates, thus clogging them. A good deal of trouble was encountered at first with this clogging, as much as  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch of carbonate being formed sometimes on the diaphragm.

The calcium and magnesium chlorides are removed in the purification tanks by the addition of the correct amount of sodium carbonate dissolved in hot water. There should not be any excess of the sodium carbonate first because of the unnecessary cost, and second if any sodium carbonate is carried over to the electrolytic cell there is formed at the anode where the chlorine is being liberated sodium hypochlorite and chlorate, which give up oxygen to attack the carbons. The carbons are very quickly destroyed if this happens.

Accordingly careful analyses of the brine, or rather the purified brine, are made periodically to determine the correct amount of soda ash to be used.

From the purification tanks the brine is passed through a filter press to remove the last trace of precipitated carbonates.

Thence the brine passes to the electrolytic cells.

The cell used is called the Gibb cell. It is in reality a comparatively simple affair. It consists of a steel cup some 3 ft. high and about 2 ft. in diameter in which are placed the electrodes and electrolyte. The anode is a series of carbon rods about 1 in. in diameter and suspended from a metallic collar resting on the top of the cell. The kathode is sheet iron cylinder carrying a great number of perforations. These perforations are rectangular and made by a blunt chiselled-pointed punch in such a way as to push the iron inwards and separate it into two projecting lugs. The inner surface of this kathode is covered carefully and completely by a sheet of asbestos paper pressed into place. The lugs from the kathode engage this asbestos and keep it in place. This sheet of asbestos offers no serious resistance to the passage of the electric current and serves as a diaphragm to keep apart the products produced at the anode and at the kathode. It is a very necessary part of the cell.

A space of about  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. lies between the carbons and the iron kathode.

The electrolysis produces at the anode chlorine which escapes upward from the brine and is caught in an earthenware dome over the central part of the cell, and at the cathode sodium. The sodium interacts with the water, producing sodium hydroxide and hydrogen. The hydrogen escapes through a hole in the side of the containing jar. The sodium hydroxide solution collects in the space outside the cathode and is drawn off from the bottom of the cell.

The brine is maintained at a fixed level within the cell by a constant level apparatus similar to that found in any chemical laboratory.

The cells are connected in a series of 64 and current is passed through the series. The difference in potential between the terminals is 220 volts. The cables or rods connecting the cells are very large so that there is practically no resistance in the connections. The drop in the voltage occurs in the cells. It



is between 3 and 4 volts to a cell. These cells are very efficient; at times the product of their action has exceeded 99 per cent. of the theoretical product.

The cells are placed on insulating blocks, sewer pipes in fact, and all connections between the cells and the environment are non-conducting, *i.e.*, of earthenware, glass or rubber. This is to prevent any loss of current to the earth.

The liquid that dribbles away from the cathode contains per litre 120 grams of caustic soda and 60 to 80 grams of salt. This liquid is sent to a first effect vacuum pan similar in design to that used for the production of salt. Evaporation under a vacuum of 28-29 inches of mercury is carried to a point where practically all the salt has been crystallized out. The liquid in this retort is kept in vigorous circulation by a pump so as to prevent the caking of the salt. The liquid is then withdrawn to a tank with a perforated bottom but covered with a fine mesh of monel metal. The salt is caught and the lye drains through.

This liquid, containing 200 grams of caustic soda per litre is passed into a second effect vacuum pan where the evaporation is carried to a density of 700 grams of caustic per litre.

This lye is then put through the finishing process in huge open iron pots weighing as much as 13 tons and containing from 16 to 18 tons of finished caustic. Coal fires are kept under these pots to boil off the remaining water. Strong lye is kept running into the pot until it is practically full of molten caustic soda.

During this process some soda ferrite  $\text{Na}_2\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_4$  is formed, giving a bluish cast to the caustic. To get rid of this soda ferrite some sulphur is added to the mass. This sulphur probably acts as a calatytic agent, as a carrier of oxygen from the atmosphere. The iron is precipitated as ferric oxide.

The molten caustic is then ladled out into iron drums, in which it solidifies and is sealed ready for the market. Each drum contains about 750 pounds.

The chlorine which gathers in the dome at the top of the electrolytic cell is drawn off by a fan and passed to the bleaching powder chambers. These are huge affairs, 20 x 120 x 8 feet high, completely lined with lead. On the floor of these chambers is spread a layer of hydrated lime about 3 inches thick. It is

very important that this lime be a good calcium oxide, free from iron and any appreciable amount of magnesium. A lime containing magnesium oxide gives an unstable bleaching powder. The lime is hydrated with steam in a revolving and heated chamber. The hydrated lime should be a powder as fine-grained and smooth as flour.

Some six or eight of these large lime chambers mentioned above are connected in series. The chlorine is passed into the oldest chamber, *i.e.*, the one that is nearest completion and then to the next oldest and finally to the chamber that has just been furnished with fresh lime. The object of this is twofold. First, the oldest chamber with bleaching powder nearly finished needs the strong chlorine to complete the process and the youngest chamber with the fresh aviv lime will take up the last traces of chlorine coming to it. Secondly, if strong chlorine be supplied to the fresh aviv lime there may be formed calcium chlorate and calcium chloride which, of course, does not make bleaching powder.

As soon as a chamber is finished, which takes from 5 to 8 days, it is cut out and another fresh chamber added on the other end of the series.

Good bleaching powder is caked and must be broken up. Men enter the chamber wearing aspirators and break up the bleach into lumps. These are put through a crusher and packed in drums.

A good bleaching powder should contain 35 per cent. of available chlorine. The Canadian Salt Co. sell their bleach under a guarantee that a carload will average 35 per cent. Accordingly, an analysis of the bleach is made for every five drums. The sample is taken by removing with a long tube some powder from each drum and mixing the removed portions. Sometimes the available chlorine will run as high as 38 per cent.

I am indebted for much of my information to Mr. E. G. Henderson, Manager, and Mr. W. H. P. Walker, Chemist, of the Canadian Salt Co.

This subject is naturally a very dry one, yet the presence of 200 feet of salt below Windsor has not made the city dry.

*THE RELATION OF NATURE STUDY TO SCIENCE.*

ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR IN NATURE STUDY, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

There has been much controversy on this subject by both scientists and the nature study devotees, and I am sorry to say that there have also been reciprocal recriminations. I am going to take the liberty of giving you a summary of this controversy as I gave it in a presidential address to the American Nature Study Society a year ago.

“At the time that nature study first attracted the attention of the scientific world, the teaching of the biological sciences was under the heavy sway of German laboratory methods. The structure of animals and plants was studied to the last detail with the aid of microscope. Morphology had become a fetish and to it was sacrificed all interests relating to the life of the dissected creature. Any living organism, whether it were a primrose, a swallow, a cat, or a caterpillar, must perforce be infiltrated with paraffin and made into ribbon sections before it was considered to be worthy of the attention of a man of science.

The era immediately preceding this had been given over almost wholly to the naming and classification of organisms. The species-hunter with the greatest number of scalps at his belt was considered the greatest scientist; but now the species-hunter and his scalps and all he had ever hunted were relegated to the dark ages by a large number of scientific men.

This might not have been so bad, if it had been confined to colleges and universities. It might be expected that since it took so long to evolve the world and its organisms—there would also be stages in the study of the same. The universities can afford to wait for their enlightenment to develop. Unfortunately, this state of things was not confined to universities for the pupils trained in these institutions of learning went forth to teach in the secondary schools—and carried with them the cult of cutting.

Thus it was that nature study in its infancy found the man with the microtome occupying the field to its outermost boundaries. And this man liked nothing better than to spank the

infant on every possible occasion—because he considered it not worthy of rearing. But spanking does not kill the healthy young; and our infant did not howl when whacked—it just went somewhere else and kept on growing. As long as it was merely spanked all was well; but as it grew into blooming childhood, the man with the microtome joined with whatever species-hunters there were left—and the two forthwith proceeded to inoculate nature study with a combined virus which nearly caused the untimely death of their victim. The attempt to reduce science, as such, to child's size and call it nature study did more to damage the cause than any other single factor.

Just here most opportunely a reaction set in against the man with the microtome. Some brave souls dared to arise and declare that an animal would not have had any organs to be made into microtomic ribbons, if it had had no use for these organs; and therefore it might be well to discover their use as well as their structure. These revolutionists hastened to name themselves "Ecologists," not daring to wait to be christened by the oligarchy of the laboratories.

The Ecologists at once came to the aid of nature study, for ecology is merely nature study grown to robust middle age. The work of the species-hunter and the work of the man with the microtome were both of use to the Ecologist, for he took their results into the field with him and used them in discovering how manifold life was affected in its development and habits by its environment. The Ecologist was fired with the nature study idea and he had come to stay; but he was slow in making his influence felt in the laboratories of the universities and more so in the secondary schools. It took too much time to work out the problems of the interdependence of life; it was much easier to catch something, chloroform it, and cut it into sections.

I would not for a moment be understood to assert that no scientific men upheld the nature study idea in the universities during this period. The work of such men as Shaler, Hodge, the Coulters, Jenkins, Kellog, Bailey, Comstock, Schmucker, and many others deserves the most profound gratitude from every nature lover. Nor would I ignore the debt that nature study owes to scientific ideals, the chief of those being the whole-hearted search for truth. Perhaps in the end, this emphasizing the



fundamental need of truthfulness will have compensated for all that nature study suffered at the beginning from the narrow arrogance of the man with the microtome."

Now, throwing all controversy aside, let us consider the fundamental relations between the two. Let us first consider wherein nature study and science resemble each other: Their chief resemblance lies in the fact that they deal with the same subject matter. Nature study is, after all that has been said, simply a study of nature and this is also the business of science. The organic world and the inorganic world afford material for the observations and investigations of both.

Another similarity is that both must be essentially free from economic limitations. Long ago we learned that science could best serve practical economic ends when it was unhampered by the aim of thus doing. For instance, there are men spending their best energies to-day in investigating electricity whose work is so far above the understanding of the practical electrician as if it were inscribed in Sanscrit. And yet who doubts that we must look to these men for knowledge that will surely revolutionize our present methods of using electricity. So in nature study we observe all things impartially and when we must use part of our observations for economic purposes we have them ready at hand. The movement for bird protection is a forcible instance for this. Bird study was one of the first and has always been one of the most important phases of the nature study movement. But who that has watched the growth and strength of the bird protection propaganda, would for a moment say that it had its inception or gained its strength because of its economic importance? Pure sentiment—a love of birds in the hearts of thousands of people all over the land, created the crusade. The economic considerations trailed after; and yet there has hardly been in the history of any country a movement of greater economic importance. This is a cogent illustration of the value of not limiting the nature study idea or its scope to what seems to be of practical use. It should be remembered that in all history crusades have been born and led of the spirit.

Science and nature study are alike in that they both are seeking for the truth; they are both trying to see things as they are without mental bias. One of the most important of the influences

of nature study on the child is that it teaches him from the first to be exact in his observations and truthful in telling about them. Again there is a very important resemblance because both the scientist and nature student learn to say simply and frankly, "I do not know," when dealing with the unknown. This is a very important factor in telling the truth; it gives the proper perspective for guessing and teaches that guessing is not knowing. What either the scientist or the nature student guess, is a hypothesis which is to be proven or disproven with an equable mind and unprejudiced understanding.

Science and nature study have the same attitude toward the literature pertaining to the subject studied. It is to be used as a help but is not to be regarded as a chief part of the work. It is used as a guide to farther observations which shall lead on into the realm of the unknown. Nothing takes the interest out of the subject for the child so quickly as to believe that all he may see has been seen before and written in a book.

Both the biologist and the nature student finds the out-of-doors the best laboratory. There they can see life conditioned by its environment; and the next resemblance is almost a corollary of the above, that is, explaining what they see through writing and drawing. The field note-book is almost a necessity to both. The biologist must record what he sees for future reference; the nature student records what he sees and illustrates it as a natural result of his interest and inner need for self-expression.

In summarizing the essential differences between science and nature study it is necessary to define these two terms. The science of a subject consists of the logical arrangement of all the facts known concerning it. The science of entomology, for instance, is a straightforward methodical marshalling of all the knowledge gained by the entomologists of all time.

Nature study is simply the personal point of view toward a science. Professor L. H. Bailey says "Nature study is not science. It is not knowledge. It is not facts. It is spirit. It is concerned with the child's outlook on the world." Nature study is what the child's cup can hold of the overflowing springs of science. From these definitions we can see that the chief difference between the two is the point of attack.

To study the science of entomology we begin with the study of the more generalized and primitive insects and progress to the study of the more complex and specialized forms. How would the nature student begin entomology? The child finds the cocoons hung on the branches of the wild cherry tree; he takes them home, marvelling at the skill in their construction and places them where he can watch them. Lo! *Cecropia* moths issue and spread their great wings and flutter about the room. Mayhap one lays eggs and he watches their hatching and rears the caterpillars in their ever-changing uniforms, and mayhap he sees one of these finally weave his cocoon. This study teaches him of the habits of the silk worms, a family of the *Lepidoptera*. He next becomes interested in a beetle, golden green that he sees in his path but can rarely seize because of its agility. And he may note as he walks little holes suddenly appear miraculously in the same path before the disturbance of his feet. And he discovers and reads until he knows that the little ogres inhabiting these holes, are the young of his shining beetle. This study teaches him of the tiger beetles, an important family of the *Coleoptera*. Thus he may study the mosquito and learn something of the *Diptera* or the cricket and learn something of the *Orthoptera*, or the bee which leads to a knowledge of the *Hymenoptera*. The point of his attack on the science is simply where his interest leads him to impinge upon it. He is not interested in the bees because he has studied the crickets. He is interested in the bees because he has watched them at work in the hollyhocks; he is interested in the cricket because he hears this little troubadour playing his mandolin at the doorway of his cave under a stone in the meadow. It is always his personal interest that leads the child to observe and learn about the insect and not an interest in the science itself. But it is easily seen that following these threads of personal interest out to the point where it impinges upon the science finally gives the nature student a comprehension of that science.

Another difference is in the arrangement and plan of work. In studying science we take botany and devote our time to it. Then we take zoology or geology and give our time to these. The child may study a flower, a bird, an insect, and a stone, all the same morning, as he wanders through field and wood.

Then again the scientist is a specialist. We no longer have the old-fashioned naturalist, interested and well versed in all the sciences. Indeed, if he had survived he would be the ideal nature study teacher. To-day a man is not a scientist unless he is a specialist. The nature student is only a specialist on occasions. He may become so interested in birds that he becomes an authority on the birds of his locality. At the same time his interests are so general that he may next specialize in ferns, or trees, or butterflies. Breadth of interest, breadth of knowledge, and breadth of outlook, are the results of nature study, depth and specialization the results of scientific influence. Nature study is for the young who are learning to see what is in the world. Science is for the mature mind which is eagerly seeking to push on beyond the horizon of the known. It is interesting to note how one leads to the other. We have found in our university that these students who were trained to see what they looked at when young have a background which renders them far better scientists than those who were not thus trained. A difference of minor importance is that of nomenclature. Science needs an exact and specialized nomenclature. When any organ or organism is mentioned, it is important that its exact name be given. The more popular names fit nature study better. *Carolina femurrubrum* is a perfectly good name for an insect, but the "red-legged grasshopper" is a more graphic name for the nature student. *Viola canadensis* sounds important, but we love to call the flower the "Canada violet."

Another essential difference between science and nature study is the study of form. A man may be a great scientist through studying form alone, but to the nature student form is only interesting in its relation to action. The long strong leg means leaping powers to the nature student, whether that leg be on a man, or a frog, or an antelope. The scientist asks what it is. The nature student asks what it does. Scientists may study dead specimens, but the specimen must be quite alive and up and doing to be of any interest to the nature student. As a corollary of this difference is the wide chasm between the two in the matter of taking life. For the anatomist the killing of specimens is absolutely necessary. But the nature student can discover all he needs to know of anatomy by watching what the



living creature does with its anatomy. The nature student is interested only in life and not in dead specimens unless perchance they lead him to study life. It is quite anomalous to kill a creature in order to discover how it lives.

Nature study undoubtedly has its message for the teachers of science in the high school. Before the pupil specializes in the study of cell structure he should have some background of knowledge of the organism containing the cells. I have known many college students who disliked a certain course in botany exceedingly. It bored them beyond words to express. I had occasion to take that same course and found it one of the best courses I ever pursued and exceedingly interesting. The difference between these students and myself was that they had had no botanical background. They had not roamed the fields and woods, and waded in streams in early life as I had. When I studied the cell-structure of *spirogyra*, I had had long experience of "speaking acquaintance" with fascinating frog spittles and their kin, and the revelation of their structure was like a fairy tale. A student must be interested in the bird, the insect, the tree, the flower, before he really cares about how it is constructed. We can make much better biologists, or physiologists, or anatomists of students who are prepared by a wide outlook and a broad knowledge of the relations of organisms in nature and their life habits as modified by environment.

I believe that more of the nature study methods should be introduced in high school science. Their work should give pupils of this age a knowledge of their out-of-doors. It should give the zest of learning to know bird life, animal life, insect life, tree and plant life. It should be organized nature study. If the student goes on to college he will get the pure science there. If he does not he will be better off if what he knows of science sets his feet on paths that lead out into the woods and fields and gives him intelligence concerning what he there sees.

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## ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION

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### *RECENT TENDENCIES IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.*

W. E. MACPHERSON.

Those who have followed the educational periodicals in England and the United States devoted to the teaching of History in Secondary Schools (History; the Macmillan Company, the organ of the English Historical Association; The History Teachers' Magazine; McKinley and Co., Philadelphia, edited under the supervision of a Committee of the American Historical Association), the bulletins issued by the various educational authorities, the occasional publications of the English or American Historical Associations, and the output of recent text-books in history will have been struck by the recurring discussion of certain demands for reforms in the teaching of High School History which may be summed up as follows:

*First.* A demand that the subject-matter of history studied in Secondary Schools should have a direct bearing on the preparation for citizenship.

*Second.* That to this end more stress should be laid on Modern History, on Civics, and on current events.

*Third.* That the stress should be laid, not on military or political history, but on social and economic.

These tendencies are particularly noticeable in the United States. The more conservative English teacher who shrinks from carrying Modern History past 1837 (though persuaded by the present war to enlarge it to 1870) tends to seek relief from the monotony of the ordinary course by excursions into local history or by the use of original sources. Yet English text-books show increasing attention to social and economic problems and one of the most readable leaflets issued recently by the English

Historical Association deals with the teaching of civics. Among nine subjects discussed at the Stratford-on-Avon Conference on the teaching of history last May, three of them dealt respectively with the teaching of social and economic history; teaching of current history, and the study of civics in schools. In Townsend Warner's "Economic Organization of England," we have a book well within the capacity of High School students. The Piers Ploughman Series of History Readers, too, puts an interesting volume on the social and economic history of England within the reach of the Public School student. Edward Cressy's "Outlines of Industrial History," issued by Macmillan in April, is intended, as the preface informs us, to fill the need "for a book connecting more closely the dead past with the living present. . . . to sketch lightly some of the facts and phenomena which lie between school-boy history and the politics of the man." A noticeable feature of this book is that it devotes a chapter of twenty-five pages to the history of national education in England.

Another tendency noticeable in English publications of recent years is the desire to bring the English pupil into touch with the original materials of historic study, by means of source books. Though the crusade led so valiantly by Mr. Keatinge in favour of basing the course of instruction mainly on original documents seems to have failed of its purpose, it has at least attracted attention to a valuable and quite practicable means of fresh illustrations, of variety in review, of correction of judgment, and of applying the problem method to the study of History. I need not mention again the names of the various series of source books which were presented at the last meeting of this Association, though, indeed, it would need amendment for several series have been added in the past year. One of the latest ventures of the English Historical Association was to publish for the use of schools, on separate sheets, selling at a penny each or twenty-five for 1/6, the following constitutional documents:

Coronation Charter of Henry I (Trans.).

Magna Charta (Trans.).

Petition of Right.

Habeas Corpus Act.

Bill of Rights.

Act of Settlement.

We have all discoursed at length on these documents. How many of us, I wonder, have ever read them?

But the chief demand that the choice of subject-matter of history should be dominated by the idea of interpreting present conditions and aiding in the immediate solution of present political problems, comes, as I have said, from the United States. If we turn to Bourne's standard work on the "Teaching of Civics, 1902," we find amongst the reasons for studying history in school, (1) that it enables us to comprehend the world in which we live. (2) It gives the pupil a clearer consciousness of what he is himself. (3) It can make a direct appeal to interests the pupil already possesses. (4) It cultivates a true patriotism by showing how men have been swept out of the channel of petty individual ambitions and made to serve the common cause. (5) It cultivates the love of truth and an historical attitude of mind. (6) It trains the judgment by the weighing of evidence. (7) It cultivates the imagination. Lastly, it introduces us to books and trains us in their use.

But it is evident that these advantages are not peculiar to the study of history; literature, science, mathematics, may well challenge any exclusive claim and most of these advantages, after all, depend entirely on the method of presentation.

In the most recent work in the teaching of history, that by Professor Johnson of Columbia (Macmillan, 1915), all these aims are simmered down to one, i.e., to make intelligible to the pupil the social and political world in which he lives. Professor Johnson tells us that, "at the present time history seems to be losing rather than gaining in favour with school administrators. The present demand is for social studies of direct and immediate concern to individual communities. Questions relating to public health, to housing and homes, to good roads, and the like, in the present, are coming to be viewed as of greater importance than questions relating to how people lived in the past. The educational perspective is rapidly changing. It is becoming increasingly clear that children should know something about the duties of the garbage collector and the gas inspector; it is becoming less clear that they should know something about the deeds of Alexander and of Charlemagne. Attention is now being focused more definitely than ever before upon vital present problems, and



there is a growing tendency to ask of history primarily and chiefly that it contribute to an understanding of these problems. The question then becomes, not what in the past is important in representing and explaining the past, but what in the past is important to us." Yet Professor Johnson does not wholly endorse the new point of view. He warns us that the "pursuit even of a great purpose should not be conceived in a narrow spirit. There ought still to be byways in which it is safe, now and then, to forget the everlasting pedagogical formula, 'Turn everything to use,' leisure to wander in quiet places praying only the prayer for truth, dreaming only of glories that have passed away from earth, feeling only the inspiration of vanished greatness; or, if faith in utility must go all the way, rising to the faith of Browning's Grammarian:

Earn the means first—God surely will contrive  
 Use for our earning.  
 Others mistrust and say, "But time escapes!  
 Live now or never!"  
 He said, "What's time? Leave Now for dogs and apes!  
 Man has Forever."

"At the worst a little superfluous knowledge is not a dangerous thing, and even if it were, the wisest of educators is unable to draw sharply the line between what is superfluous and what is not. There is danger, in this age of passion for immediate practical results, of forgetting that larger future which, in spite of utilitarian educational philosophers, is ever being shaped in the Grammarian's spirit.

Oh, if we draw a circle premature,  
 Heedless of far gain,  
 Greedy for quick returns of profit, sure  
 Bad is our bargain!

The more radical view is described by Dr. Flexner in a publication of the General Education Board, 1916, entitled, "A Modern School." His "Modern curriculum" has four departments: science, commerce, æsthetics, and civics which includes history. Of the last he says, "The fourth main division which I have called Civics includes history, institutions and current happenings. Much has been written, little done, toward the

effective modernization of this work; so that, though new views of historical values prevail in theory the schools go on teaching the same sort of history they have always taught and in pretty much the same way." "Should a student of the past," writes Professor Robinson, of Columbia, "be asked what he regarded as the most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times—he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of common men and common things." Now the conventional treatment of history is political. Meanwhile, as Professor Robinson says, "it is clear that our interests are changing and consequently the kind of questions that we ask the past to answer. Our most recent manuals . . . endeavour to bring their narrative into relation here and there with modern needs and demands. But I think that this process of eliminating the old and substituting the new might be carried much farther; that our best manuals are still crowded with facts that are not worth bringing to the attention of our boys and girls, and that they still omit in large measure those things that are best worth telling."

The tendency of the manuals referred to may be gathered by the following quotations from introductions to recent text-books:

Robinson: "The New History."

"What is most necessary for them (i.e., pupils) to know of the past in order to be as intelligent, efficient, and happy as possible in the life they must lead and the work they must do."

Harding: "New Mediaeval and Modern History."

"The aim has been to decrease the amount of space devoted to political and military details and to increase the emphasis on social, industrial, and cultural topics."

"It is now generally recognized that a leading aim in the study of History is to enable one to understand the world of to-day."

Robinson and Beard: "Development of Modern England."

"It has been our ever conscious aim to enable the reader to catch up with his own times, to read intelligently the foreign news in the morning paper."

West: "Ancient World." (Revised.)

"It is doubtful if the text-book should give room to any incident which the pupil cannot articulate with the life of today."

Chas. A. Beard: "Contemporary American History."

"I have sought to furnish a background for the leading issues of current politics."

This point of view is familiar to readers of H. G. Wells and Arnold Bennett, who makes his hero Clayhanger, fresh from the public schools, "aware of the rivers of Asia in their order, and of the principal products of Uruguay, but ignorant of where the water in his town comes from."

Commissioner Snedden of Massachusetts lends the weight of his great authority to the new view: "But it is as an agency in social education or in training for citizenship that many of us have come greatly to value history. History, at its best, is a record of the facts of social development."

"Here, however, we come to what seems to me the almost revolutionary requirement to be imposed upon history teaching in the future. That history teaching, if it is to be pedagogically sound, as I see it, must be based primarily and systematically upon a fairly well defined knowledge of the social institutions of the present. Here, to my mind, is to be found the greatest single defect in history teaching as now practiced. In our high schools we teach the history of any period as something quite by itself, and almost entirely out of functional relation to the present. I am aware that there are some exceptions to be found among "live" teachers who are continually using illustration and parallel cases from the present to fortify their teaching. What I refer to, however, is secondary school teaching as exemplified in our text-books, teachers' manuals and syllabi, and to such teaching as is found in the great majority of our high schools. That history is based upon the chronological order. It treats of a given period in the world's history in systematic fashion, and almost completely without reference to contemporary conditions, whether these are related or unrelated to the history under consideration.

It seems to me, indeed, that history as taught is based upon what is sometimes called the "cold storage" theory of education."

“What they actually accomplish, at their best, is to memorize a very long series of verbal statements regarding the various phases of, e.g., Greek life. In their examinations, college entrance or other, they reproduce with greater or less fidelity these memorized statements. The underlying notion seems to be that the knowledge thus memorized may constitute, for the present, a basis of culture, and may be drawn upon at some future time in case it should seem profitable to do so.

It is not to be denied that within limits—which are very marked limits, indeed—the *cold storage* theory of education has value.

“In the second place, the treatment of history here suggested involves bringing to bear constantly the matter of choice. Materials must be taken from particular periods or times because of their bearing upon the present or upon the immediate future of the learner. No event in history, just because it was an important event in its time, is utilized unless its use can be shown to be of importance to the present.”

“Certain sections of the world now confine themselves almost exclusively to manufacture, others to mining, others to various special forms of agriculture. Of what extensive use, therefore, to the citizen of the future, is an exhaustive study of transportation conditions as they existed prior to 1810? The study would be about as profitable as would be the exhaustive study, by a man preparing for the activities of a military leader, of warfare carried on by use of bows and arrows, spears and coat of mail.”

The tendencies to stress modern history, to narrow the scope of the work in favour of more intensive study, and to have in mind the preparation of the student for his career as a citizen are, of course, not new. If we contrast the history courses in our schools to-day with those that were in vogue sixty years ago in this Province, the change is marked not only in the point of view but in the scope of the study. We would have difficulty now, I fear, in answering some of the questions set for Normal School Examinations in 1851. The paper is entitled “History General, English and Canadian. There are 48 questions—no options—time, 3 hours. “What is history? What is chronology? State the two great divisions of history. State the date of the creation of the world. State the date of the flood. What



may probably have been the state of the world before the flood as regards political divisions? State the date of the sale of Joseph into Egypt. Give the name and date of the foundation of some very ancient city of Europe. When did Canada finally come into the possession of the British? Who was the British Commander and who was on the throne of England? What was the next very remarkable event in the history of Canada? What effect had this event on Upper Canada? When was Canada divided into two Provinces? etc., etc."

When in 1871 the old grammar school of the classes gave place to the modern High School of the people, Dr. Ryerson declared the first object of these to include "fulfilling with efficiency, honour, and usefulness, the duties of municipal councilors, legislators, and various public offices, in the services of the country," and, as you know, he would have included even in the curriculum of the public schools the elements of political economy. Within the last few years specific questions in Civics have appeared in departmental examination papers and the stress of the great war has now led to definite instruction in current history. And this, we feel, is in the right direction. The increased emphasis on economic and social history is sound. The tendency to concentrate on more recent periods is welcome. We may grant that *one* of the main objects in teaching history is the fitting for citizenship, the preparation of our pupils for casting intelligent votes. We all want to bring history into relation with life. But I think we do well to examine critically the new method so confidently urged. It is hard to see how the study of current events can lead to intelligent judgments on public matters unless these events can be interpreted by knowledge of the past.

We may be pardoned a feeling of nervous apprehension when we contemplate the problems to which in certain recent contributions to the History Teachers' Magazine we are desired to turn the attention of our students, e.g., the policies, beliefs, and platforms, of our present political parties, problems of municipal problems and sanitation, the actual participation of students in civic activities and some more adventurous projects for self-government in school. So far as we are concerned, we may feel that the change should be rather in the preparation and point of

view of the teacher than in the set prescription of work to the pupil. We already have much freedom of choice indicated in the division of work into outlines and periods for more detailed study. The difficulty seems to be how to distinguish the treatment of these parts and perhaps we lack the boldness to omit more freely than we do parts of the traditional lore of the class room in history. If one may alter a word in Burke, "It is no small part of wisdom to know how much ignorance must be tolerated." The difficulty is enhanced by the lack of differentiation between periods in the text-books. Here we must have recourse to supplementary reading and for this the essentials are a well-appointed library and an enthusiastic teacher, interested in the world about him and very mindful that all this is the child of the past.

"Surely no man of our time has shown an interest more vital in present-day affairs than did Lord Acton; and surely none more fruitfully than he brought history to bear upon them. Warmly he commends the French for teaching in their schools contemporary history, and he hopes that England will follow their example. 'Yet the living,' says Lord Acton, 'do not give up their secrets with the candour of the dead,' and 'beyond the question of certainty is the question of detachment. . . . Our most sacred and disinterested convictions ought to take shape in the tranquil regions of the air above the tumult and tempest of active life. . . . History compels us to fasten on abiding issues and rescues us from the temporary and the transient.'"

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*IN THE WORLD CONFLICT OF IDEAS.*

BY DR. J. A. MACDONALD.

Ideas, not things, are the supreme realities. Things, mere things, mindless, conscienceless, passionless things, measuring so far, weighing so much, bought and sold for such a price—mere things have no real significance apart from the mind that perceives them and the ideas that give them worth. Mere things would not count in the infinite scheme were there no idea to give them dynamic and direction, and no heart of Love or of Hate to supply their meaning and their motive power.

## THE PRIMACY OF IDEAS.

It is this absolute supremacy of the things of the mind over the things of the flesh, of the spiritual over the carnal, of eternal Thought over evanescent phenomena—it is this primacy of ideas that in all stages of civilization, and never more than now, gives the great places of opportunity and of responsibility to those who awaken and stimulate and organize the thinking of the people, and especially the thinking of the people of a democracy. The teacher's desk, the preacher's pulpit, the orator's platform, the writer's sanctum—these are the places of true leadership, the thrones of real power.

And so it comes that the great conflicts in the world's history, the only real conflicts, are the conflicts, not of brute forces, but of world ideas. For well nigh two terrible years the world war in Europe has gone on, armies against armies, navies against navies, submarines burrowing underseas, aeroplanes swooping overhead, mechanism and physical force pretending to the master-ship everywhere. It is all very terrible, very horrible, very ghastly: but were that all—that crash of armed forces along the wide miles of battlefront, that ceaseless bursting of shells from long-range guns, that welter of the day and that weirdness of the night—were that all, then indeed were this war only a hideous crime on both sides, brutal, vulgar, unheroic, a gigantic dogfight in the world's front street.

What saves this world war from being, in the eyes even of a Canadian, an unredeemed and undisguised brutality is that, more than any of the great wars of history, it is a struggle not for territory but for freedom, for the freedom of the soul, for the ideals of liberty: a struggle for the right of a free people to govern themselves, and for equality of opportunity for the little kingdoms and the small nationalities: a struggle for the right to a place in the sun, not for the Great Powers alone, Britain and France and Germany and Russia, but for Belgium and Denmark and Holland and the Scandinavian countries and Greece and the Balkan States, that they, too, as freely and securely as their larger neighbours, may each be free to live their own life, to cherish their own ideals, and to make their distinctive contribution to the civilization and freedom of the world. For anything less noble Canadians, also, ought to be too proud to fight. But for anything more worthy none of the heroes and patriots of old ever had a chance to go out to die.

#### IDEAS IN CONFLICT.

The ideas in conflict at the battlefronts these many months are not merely the selfish ambitions of arrogant dynasties each eager for domination over the others. If Britain were fighting for the overthrow of Germany and the German race, so that British autocrats might rule the German people as German autocrats have ruled in Alsace and Schleswig, the conflict would be one in which Canadians could have no honourable part. What makes even the thought of the conflict tolerable is the conception of its real meaning, of the human interests at stake, and of the world ideas involved in the issue.

The world of 1914 had begun to be a society of nations. Great ideas had been at work in life and in history. Those ideas were slowly expressing themselves in the institutions of law and of justice and of free government. Wherever civilization had prevailed over barbarism, there individuals organized into a community, communities into a nation, and in turn the nations were beginning to feel out into international relations. The old barbarism of the international jungle began to change into the civilized neighbourhood of interdependent nations. Law,



justice, freedom—those world ideas had found place and expression in the thought and speech of all world nations before 1914.

Law, justice, freedom—those ideas are the products of no one race, the peculiar possession of no one nation. They are the sparks that disturb the clod in all life and through all history, whenever man rises to a consciousness above the brute creation. Each separate people has its contribution to make, its ideal to achieve. Not Israel alone, not Greece alone, not Rome alone; we and all the world of to-day are the heirs of their great yesterdays. But the nations of to-day also: each has its part to play, its life to live, its place in the general plan, and its distinction of service to all the world, for the enrichment and ennoblement of the civilization of to-morrow.

#### THE NATION AND ITS IDEA.

Each nation lives by the idea it embodies. If one nation suffers or is spoiled of its idea, or is robbed of its place in the sun, all the world of nations suffers with it, suffers a loss that has no gain to match. Belgium had its idea, and Holland, and Denmark, and Sweden, and Norway, and Italy, and Greece, and Serbia, as truly as Britain, and France, and Germany, and Russia; each had its idea to contribute to the sum total of the world's ideas on freedom and justice and government.

That distinctive idea is the soul of the nation. To cherish that idea, to guard that depositum of eternal truth, and to release it in the thought and life of the world—that for the nation is to save its soul. But to betray that idea, to allow it to wither, or to barter that idea for any of the things of the flesh, is the nation's suicide. For that idea to be crushed out in order that some stronger nation's designs may be gratified—that is international murder. To make international murder a crime, and a crime not alone against its helpless victim, but a crime against the whole society of civilized nations—that is the function and purpose of international law. And to put behind international law, behind its declarations and requirements, the organized opinion and the organized judgment and the organized power of all law-abiding nations—that is the next necessary step toward true internationalism: and not until that is done will the foundations be laid or the fabric erected, strong and enduring for the world's peace.

## GREAT IDEAS SET FREE.

Great ideas are astir everywhere in the world to-day. Every continent is disturbed. Every nation is unsettled. The established order of things is upset. America as well as Europe is in commotion. Something has happened that made a world upheaval inevitable. One vital idea let loose would do it. An idea set free always starts a revolution in the minds of men. Nothing in all the world is so revolutionary as a great idea incarnated in a living personality.

When Jesus Christ said to a little group of Galileans that He came not to send peace on the earth but a sword, He had in mind nothing so clumsy or so impotent as a deadly weapon drawn from Caesar's armory. Goliath's heavy sword was good enough to cut off Goliath's stupid head: a centurion's sword was equal to the task of cutting off a servant's ear: but, facing the world in the conflict of ideas, the weapons of the military autocrats were of no avail for the Prophet from Galilee. When He set out to conquer the world, He drew a feathered arrow from the quiver of the mind and flashed a two-edged sword from the scabbard of truth. He challenged Caesar's invincible legions with nothing but an idea; and the revolution He started twenty centuries ago turned the world upside down, and is still the power that makes thrones totter and sets nations free. A whole handful of His ideas were flung out from the hilltop in Galilee when He said, "Go ye into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature."

## THREE GREAT WORDS.

Those ideas are awork in the seething mind of the world to-day. They start a Divine discontent everywhere. In world politics three great words, expressing three world ideas, are already beginning to be the battle-cry of the world's new freedom. Those words are: Liberty, Democracy, Internationalism.

Liberty! Somewhere underneath all the slaveries and despotisms and blind degradations of humanity there is still left in the least and the worst a fragment of soul that makes response when the voice of freedom calls. Liberty to think one's own thoughts, to choose one's own ideals, to live one's own life free from the dictation and driving of any taskmaster—that passion

for liberty, incurable and undying in the human soul, is the Divine impulse that marks even the backward races and the submerged classes as only a little lower than the angels. So long as that spark holds on to burn there is nothing impossible in the elevation of any individual or in the enfranchisement of any people. Liberty strikes the keynote through the discord of world ideas in Europe to-day.

Democracy! The word goes back through the centuries. It bears the flavor of ancient Greece. There is the tang of Plato about it. But the idea of democracy came to its own and justified itself only in the modern world. America, with its United States and its Canada, prides itself over against Europe, as embodying the world's idea of democracy. Here on this continent has been asserted and made good the right of a free people to govern themselves. But America is only the heir of Europe's age-long struggle up from servitude to self-government.

### BACK TO EUROPE.

Go back to the countries from which North America drew its inspirations and its ideals. Go back to France. Read again that marvellous history up from Caesar's absolutism, through Bourbon tyrannies, and over the mad Napoleon dreams of world Empire. The trail is often soaked with the blood of patriots, and piled high with the corpses of those who would be free. But that trail, throbbing with the ideas of freedom and democracy, led up through the centuries of blood and sacrifice to this day, this matchless, glorious day of France's renaissance, this day of tragedy and terror when France is born again, born out of her old frivolities and her old infidelities into new life, into a new faith, into a new freedom of the spirit and a new obedience to the Christ. Let America, sated and self-satisfied in the materialism of peace, learn from blood-baptized France the new sanctities of life and the new sacredness of service.

And back to Britain! For fifteen hundred years all Britain has been the battleground of the passion for liberty and the idea of democracy. From the days of the Romans through the despotism of the Tudors, the autocracy of the Stuarts and the dull reactions of the early Hanoverians, on to our own eventful days, the world conflict of ideas raged blood-red in the Parliament and

Press of Britain. On those battlefronts of high debate were won the victories which made possible the coming Democracy of all the English-speaking world. And not in high debate alone: in England through the Commonwealth, and in Scotland under the Covenanters, men sealed their allegiance to political and religious democracy in their blood. The British peoples, among themselves and against the despotism now of their King, now of their Aristocracy, and now of their Crowd, have fought for the freedom of ideas, for the rights of the common people, and for equal justice for all classes before the law.

That idea, that dual world idea of liberty and democracy, is the key to British history. Without its lead British history is a meaningless muddle, void alike of sequence and of purpose. But the ideas of freedom and self-government produced the union of races and nationalities at home and gave birth to the free, self-governing Dominions overseas. And because the war in Europe is a conflict of ideas, a life-and-death conflict between world Despotism and world Democracy, it was inevitable that the British Lion and all the Lion's whelps from the ends of the earth should line up, where Democracy makes its last decisive and triumphant stand, in defence of the right of every free people to govern themselves.

Internationalism! Already out of the wild clangor of war a great new idea is emerging and finding voice among the nations. It is the idea of Internationalism.

In the world of Yesterday the great word, often spoken in the tone of defiance, was "Nationalism." The far greater word of the world of To-morrow will be "Internationalism." Yesterday the emerging peoples on every continent asserted themselves in what they lustily called their "Independence." To-morrow, when the horizons of life have been widened and the meaning of life enriched, the world idea will be broadened into "Interdependence." Indeed already the nations have learned the primary truth of the Christ teaching that no man liveth to himself or dieth to himself alone.

#### AMERICA'S INTER-DEPENDENCE.

When the American colonies declared from the housetops their independence of the mother country, the individual States



began each to declare its independence of the other States. But experience was against the experiment. Political experience taught what political theory might have foretold, that neighboring States cannot live and flourish except in obedience to the eternal law of the neighborhood. As extreme individualism gave way to social co-operation, so State sovereignty found prosperity and peace for the people only in inter-State law, inter-State commerce and inter-State life.

And the American Republic of Confederate States has proved to itself and before the world that it is not sufficient to itself: it cannot live alone in its trade, or in its intellectual life, or in its political development, or in its world services. America cannot stand by itself apart or escape association and entanglement in the life and achievement of other continents. America as a world factor must think in terms of the world. The world idea of Internationalism is lifting the political thought of the United States out of the dwarfing realm of parish politics. To be a true American or a true Canadian in the America of To-morrow will involve sympathy with humanity and will mean citizenship in the world.

#### CANADA AND INTERNATIONALISM.

The United States, from the time of the Declaration of Independence, in framing the union of the independent colonies, and through the checkered history of interstate co-operation, has illustrated within the Republic the spirit and the advantages of internationalism. Canada took an even more significant step, and holds to-day an even more interesting position among the nations.

Canada came to national self-government, but not by the old way of revolution and separation. Had no other way been possible Canadians, too, would have paid that price; for they, too, as surely as the colonists in New England and in Virginia, were of the Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Celtic breed. The spark of freedom and democracy was in their blood.

But Canada came by a new way, an untried way. Canada was the first colony of any Empire in all the world's history to rise from colonial dependence to national autonomy without revolution, without separation, and without sacrificing the back-

ground and perspective of the nation's history. That thing done in Canada's life is quite the greatest contribution to world politics and world democracy since the Declaration of Independence in 1776. Indeed without what Canada has done that Declaration itself would not have been made perfect. Canada took up the American idea of the right of a free people to govern themselves, and carried it forward to the larger idea of interdependence. Canada came to self-government not by revolution and separation but by political evolution and growth. First Canada, then Newfoundland, then Australia, then New Zealand, then South Africa.

Those five free Dominions overseas are the five fingers of the right hand of Britain: they are all free, every drop of their blood, every ounce of their power. And, when the menace to freedom and democracy rose in Europe in 1914, those five fingers all closed toward the palm.

#### TRUE PAN-AMERICANISM.

On this North American continent Canada stands to-day a free nation in the British Commonwealth of free nations that encircle the globe. But Canada also shares with the United States the honors and the obligations of North American democracy. By geography and history and by all the ties of common ideals Canada is the vital bond of union in the great internationalism of the English-speaking world. And more than that; in the problems which arise between the United States and the Latin Republics of Central and South America, problems which will test the principle and the power of our North American democracy, it may be of service to the United States to remember that there can be no true and genuine Pan-Americanism that does not make room within its councils for the democracy of Canada.

And so it comes about that in the world conflict of ideas these two nations of North America, with their two flags and their two sovereignties, that have kept the peace for more than a hundred years over more than four thousand miles of an open and unbarbarized international boundary—these two English-speaking nations are bound up together in the bundle of a common

life, for the defence of a common heritage, and to promote the interests of a civilized internationalism, not for themselves alone but for the freedom, the prosperity and the peace of all nations over all the world. It is for these ideas North America stands: for them we will fight, and fight together if we must: for them if needs be we will be ready to die.

### NO NEUTRALITY.

In the world conflict of Ideas there cannot be for North America—neither for the United States nor for Canada, nor for their North American Internationalism—there cannot be any neutrality of mind. In the conflict of brute forces in Europe the fortunes of war, or rather the deliberate resolves of the people, made Canada a belligerent, while the official action of the Government made the United States a neutral. But in the conflict of Ideas, when the ideas of truth and freedom and justice and the rights of self-government are at issue, when either nation stands up in the judgment hall of conscience and faces the moral obligations of duty, there cannot be neutrality, there never was any neutrality, there is no neutrality now. And in the end—it may be late or it may be soon—the nation's praise or blame must express the moral judgment of the nation's conscience, the categorical imperative of the nation's soul. In the conflict of moral Ideas there can be no neutrality.

### CONFLICT AND PREPAREDNESS.

In the world conflict of Ideas preparedness counts as surely as in the conflict of brute forces. All over the United States to-day there is a clamor and a call for military efficiency, for naval expansion, for the preparedness of the Republic to defend its people, and its possessions and its honour against assault from without or betrayal from within.

As Canadians that agitation gives us neither surprise nor alarm. An American army, be it never so formidable, or an American navy, be it never so powerful, could have in it no menace for Canada or for the Canadian people. The Great Lakes will never be stirred by the keel of any ship of war. The open prairies will never answer to the tread of an enemy army

from either side. Our civilized democracy on both sides is our defence, and our hundred years of undisturbed peace is our pledge for a thousand more.

#### INTERNATIONALISM OF IDEAS.

But when at the war fronts of the world's mind the conflict rages over the ideas of Liberty, Democracy and Internationalism, there can be no dividing lines between these two nations. Every school in the United States that puts a premium on high thinking, that makes truth its supreme objective, and character its great achievement, and holds honour above success, and sends out into the activities of the Republic men who cannot be bought and who will not lie—that school serves Canada as surely as it serves the State in which it stands.

Every college in which manhood is prized more highly than money, in which personality is gloried in rather than endowments, from which leadership goes out into the life-centres of the nation and returns not again until it touches the life-currents of the world—that college cannot be shut in by any geographical lines or confined to the range of any national flag. All leaders of thought, all teachers of truth, all masters of ideas belong to all the world: every man's fatherland is to them a native country, and every foreign country is to them a fatherland.

#### AMERICA'S READINESS OF MIND.

Preparedness? Yes. If America is to play any worthy part in the gigantic conflict of Ideas, which will disturb the world long after the war of Forces has spent itself, it is high time America made ready for that inevitable struggle.

But the readiness for which I plead is the preparedness of the American Mind, the preparedness of the American Conscience, the preparedness of the American Will.

Better, infinitely better, to go into the war at the battlefronts of Europe and on the high seas with an Army and a Navy weaker and worse equipped than the most alarmist accuser of American unpreparedness in his wildest nightmare ever dreamed, than to line up in the world conflict of Ideas with an undisciplined national Mind, a seared national Conscience and an



irresolute national Will. These are the Verdun battlements of the nation's life. Surrender them to the enemies of Truth and Freedom and Honour, and, no matter what happens to battalions and to battleships, the nation will have lost its Soul.

#### PLEA FOR THE COLLEGES.

My pleading, therefore, with all Americans, in this time of national fear and international peril, is not so much for or against the preparedness policy for Navy or Army. As a Canadian that is not my business. In that American controversy I am a neutral.

But Canadians also are Americans. On us as on them rest the North American obligations for our common internationalism. To us as to them in the new day of the new world the desolated war nations will look for leadership in those policies and programmes that make for international peace. From us as from them must go out that gospel of good-will and that law of international service in which is the hope of Europe's redemption, and through which alone can come peace to the world.

#### FROM THE WORLD STANDPOINT.

It is from this world standpoint, and for this world purpose, I make my plea on behalf of schools and colleges and universities. Especially do I plead for colleges in which a front place is made for Personality, and whose output is not only trained intelligence, but also character built four-square. North America's achievements in the world of nations to-morrow will be the expression and embodiment of ideas inspired and set free in our schools and colleges to-day. In the world conflict of Ideas the colleges are our strategic fortresses. Hold them to-day, and the Liberty, the Democracy and the Internationalism of North America, inspired by the teaching and the personality of the International Christ, will make the Christianized internationalism of North America the ensample and the dynamic of political thinking among all nations of the world.

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## COMMERCIAL SECTION

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### *PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

W. J. O'BRIEN, GALT.

*Ladies and Gentlemen.*—As you all know, this year our programme is entirely different from what it has been in previous years, in so far as this year we have no regular papers but discussions. We have several times been asked to have this change and I trust one and all will do “his bit” or “her bit” to make this Association a success and a benefit to us, so that those of our section who are not here, will make a still greater effort to be present next year.

The trend of modern education is more and more towards the technical side, and we see the Government is yearly increasing its support of Technical Schools and industrial departments in the Public Schools and Collegiate Institutes throughout the country.

All education is a series of experiences leading to certain changes in the individual. All educational effort should be directed to bring about the proper change as between ignorance and intelligence; between helplessness and ability to do things worth while in the best way at the right time; to transform and develop utter selfishness into public service; and to bring about a quick conscience instead of no sense of proportion or responsibility.

In any system of education like our commercial course that fits the pupil for a commercial position, it is highly important that the institutions and courses of study and equipment of schools and classes and teachers should be planned and used, to bring about experiences by the pupils sure to produce the changes already indicated as being of the very essence of education.

Experiences of observation, thinking, planning, making and recording develop power and bring out educational results, and

are fundamentally important to a teacher who wants to make real progress in bringing about the fine fruits of education in her or his class. In our commercial classes we have large increases in attendance (although the war has made inroads into many of our classes by boys enlisting and others leaving to take positions vacated by men who have enlisted); we have higher standards of work being exacted with satisfactory results; more demand than ever among business men for Collegiate Institute and High School trained office help and a general agreement that the Commercial Department in our schools should have every possible chance to give commercial pupils a thorough, practical business education.

It is my opinion that, in order to meet the demands made upon the schools for competent office help, whether the commercial course be a two-year or three-year course, the final year in any case should be a full year of specialization on one or both branches of commercial work, along with a broadening of commercial ideas by working along the lines of ethics and economics.

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*SHOULD COMMERCIAL SPECIALISTS BE REQUIRED  
TO HAVE A DEGREE IN ARTS?*

T. W. OATES, LONDON, ONT.

Up to the present time the Specialists in Art and Commercial Work have been on a different standing from specialists in other lines. To obtain Specialist standing in mathematics, classics, etc., a candidate has always been required to have a Degree in Arts. In fact, these certificates can be secured through no other channels.

On the other hand, a candidate for Commercial or Art Specialists might or might not be a graduate in Arts. No University or Government school was specially fitted for the Commercial Specialist's work. Most candidates prepared themselves for this examination by private study.

A few years ago the Business Colleges and especially the Central Business College, of Toronto, saw their opportunity and opened classes in this work, and were happily successful. Most of the specialists of the last six years have taken the work through the Central Business College. The Government during the past three or four years has given a Summer Course through the University of Toronto. This course has been a moderate success and is getting better.

But the commercial work in our schools is becoming more and more important. There was, and is, an increasing demand for specialists and especially male specialists. The demand is practically outdistancing the supply.

Specialists in other departments and a great number of principals were prone to look upon the Commercial Department as a cheap side line because our specialists were not all required to be graduates in Arts. So the commercial work in general suffered.

To put the Commercial Department on a level with the other departments and to make it more efficient if possible, it was decided to require a candidate for a specialist in commercial work to be a graduate in Arts.



Let us notice the probable effect

- (1) On the supply of qualified teachers.
- (2) On the Commercial Departments in our schools.
- (3) On the future of commercial work.

There is no doubt the supply of specialists will be decreased very much. University graduates now are nearly all specialists in other lines. It is not probable that they will go to further expense and loss of time to equip themselves for another certificate. For the next few years the supply, now too small, will be much lessened. This will mean temporary certificates and teachers poorly qualified to teach the work, and in consequence an injury to the pupils in attendance.

This is particularly unfortunate now when such a demand for well-trained business people has arisen. Canada, and especially Ontario, is bound to become a great industrial centre and we must be prepared for that time. If the Commercial Departments are to come into their own, they must grasp the present opportunity or lose it forever. Will having specialists in commercial work, graduates in Arts in 1925, be of any benefit if in the meantime, for lack of qualified teachers, we allow our young men and women to go to the business colleges to prepare them for the "post bellum" commercial revival now coming over the horizon?

In the second place the fact that the teacher holds a degree will mean he will have more knowledge along such lines as he has taken at university. This in itself is a benefit. But it does not mean that he will be any better from a commercial standpoint. It is a question to-day whether a college man is a successful business man—it will remain a question whether a degree will make the teacher any better as a teacher of commercial subjects.

There is, however, a way of making these graduate commercial teachers superior. That is to shape the university course along commercial lines. This, I believe, is now proposed and commercial work will also be included in the Collegiate course for Matriculation. This is a step in the right direction. This early training should, all other things being equal, make the graduate specialist superior to the non-graduate. This will make the

future of commercial work brighter. Having a degree, the specialist may become a Principal of a High School or Collegiate Institute and so further the welfare of the Commercial Department and place it on a proper basis, for in many of the schools to-day it is neglected on account of antipathy or apathy of the Principal.

So in conclusion as a summary I might say I believe from a standpoint of general education and permanent good the regulation is a good one, but it should have been postponed until means for supplying a university business course were in operation. It is unfortunate that it should come at the present crisis in our commercial and economic life.

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*SHOULD AN ESSAY BE REQUIRED BEFORE A PER-  
MANENT COMMERCIAL SPECIALIST  
CERTIFICATE IS GRANTED?*

BY A. J. WALKER, B.A., LONDON.

Section 6 of the Syllabus of Regulations and Courses for Commercial Specialists' Certificates says: "A candidate for a Permanent Commercial Specialists' certificate will be required to make a detailed written report of his investigations, preferably in the locality in which he is teaching, of three separate business systems, involving single proprietor, partnership, and corporation ownership respectively; said report to include a description of each business and its method of accounting. He shall have had at least two years' successful experience as attested by the Inspector under whom he has taught in the Commercial Department."

To the prospective Permanent Commercial Specialist the question, as asked above, becomes one of very great interest in view of the fact that the work, as outlined in section 6 above, must be done, or he must ever remain an Interim Commercial Specialist.

This problem then is, to say the least, a contentious one. The answer is clearly "Yes and No," and I propose to apply the arguments given by each side in turn and then leave you to decide as to which answer is the proper one to give.

To those who have now their permanent certificates the argument will present phases of keen interest, but to all others, including myself, they are of vital importance. No doubt the candidate who must do this work feels that the standard has already been raised sufficiently for the Interim examinations, especially as he will also, now, have to obtain his degree; and in this contention he has some just ground for complaint; but, when he understands the idea the Department had in view when they added this extra work, he will enter into it with ready zest, knowing that he will be repaid many times for his work.

As a prospective permanent Commercial Specialist then, and as one who has done most of the practical work which is required,

I shall try to tell you just what I think about it from as general a point of view as possible. There can be no valid objection offered to this necessary work, as long as no provision is made in the present written examination for a personal examination made by the candidate into the present methods of conducting commercial enterprises. A minute examination of the books used in the general business ought to be made by every teacher. He should know all books of account, the various books. He should become acquainted with the various time-saving devices, the different filing systems and how to handle them.

Just as long, then, as no provision is made in the preliminary examinations for investigating the three separate business systems, involving single proprietor, partnership and corporation accounting, and describing each business and its method of accounting, so long will it be necessary to write the above essay.

A teacher can never explain the use of special columns in books of original entry if he has not seen these in actual business. Indeed, a pupil cannot really learn these except he see the practical application of them. This is a very strong argument in favour of having students of the second and subsequent years spend a half day or more each week in a well-established business house. We are advocating for this in our city and have the goodwill of the business men on our advisory board.

Moreover, I believe that some of the students who returned for the autumn term worked a half day and attended school the other. The results were most satisfactory.

To further show the value of the personal contact of the teacher with the man of business, my principal told me, that on a recent visit to the Technical Schools in Detroit, he found that the large business firms of Windsor sent their young men of promise to these schools several half days in the week, and paid their salaries, just as if they worked the whole time. They stated they received more than value for their money. Why? These men were learning the special scientific knowledge peculiar to their trades, and will be the future inventors for their employers. Is it worth while then to spend this time on this useless essay? I answer "most assuredly."

For in Accountancy, as in all other subjects, you cannot lead if you have not a high vision. You cannot lead if you cannot



anticipate your class. No class rises higher than the teacher, and with a mere theoretical book knowledge, he cannot teach these books of account to his pupils. He will be an utter failure in book-keeping. For self-preservation then, if for no other reason, this work should be done.

Get away from our books then, enter an establishment. Take the students if possible; if not, try to arrange to send one at a time. Tell the proprietor who you are, that you are preparing students for such work as he has to do; and that you want to learn his methods so that when a student enters any establishment he will have some idea of the work he is to do. He will meet you in the same spirit and gladly show you every detail except his private affairs.

Back to your class you go. You tell them what kind of business *he* carries on. Some of them expect to do just the same work. They have now the incentive to learn; so necessary to all pupils. The book is mastered, and the work is a pleasure. The teacher was benefited, the pupil acquired additional knowledge, and both are on a better footing.

Yet another good reason for asking for this essay is found in the fact that the teacher might find out in this two years' probation that commercial work was unsuited to his capacity. If so, he has wasted enough of his time, when he wrote on his interim certificate, and it would be so much useless work. Other lines would suit him better. He does not need this additional work. No doubt also the Department had sight of the fact that the teacher would get more practical value if he did it later in life when he was acquiring practical knowledge. It would not be hurried.

He would have some valuable schoolroom experience. His viewpoint would be larger, and all things else being equal, he stands to become a more practical teacher by doing this work after, rather than before, examinations; and a much keener interest is taken in work you must teach, rather than upon that which you are to be examined, and when you find in these places such up-to-date book-forms and modern methods, with other appliances for saving time, you have an incentive for introducing them into your school, especially in those schools where little or no provision is made for the practical office work required.

Again, while the opponents of the essay have many really good arguments in their favour, there is yet another strong point in favour of retention of the essay. I refer to the fact, that, if it were not called for, many of us would not bother doing the practical part of the work, but we should not even consider such a contingent, for I am firmly convinced that if it were not called for after the examination, it would be incorporated in the Interim examination.

Now, let us apply ourselves to the argument for the negative. First then, let it be understood that there are many who advocate that the work could be done much better during the period in which the student is preparing for his written examination. I am quite sure that it could be, but the curriculum would have to be changed. There are two parts in the examination. Part I, which gives the Elementary Certificate, and which takes in all the really commercial subjects, has now seven papers. It should really have eight, while Part II has five, and should have only four.

If this subject were added, there would be thirteen subjects; and, as it is a purely commercial subject, it would naturally be put in Part I. This would make eight papers, while Part II would have only five. Of course, as I said, the subjects could be re-arranged.

In view of the fact that, from now on, all Commercial Specialists must have a degree, would it not be well at this stage, to ask the Government to request the various universities to provide a Commercial Department just the same as they now do in Classics, Science, etc.? If this could be done, I would then advocate the placing of the work in the written examination, and that the students do practical work, just as they now do in the Science Laboratory; but of course it would not do to let the practical work develop merely into a mere banking institution, as only a few of our students enter the banks. We must know how the larger wholesale houses do business. We must know how the retail butchers, etc., do theirs. We must have the practical knowledge of all business affairs, in all their departments, if we are to furnish them suitable clerks, stenographers, etc.

Still I find another group who feel, and justly so, that it is better to obtain all this practice before doing any teaching. I

believe one can never be too practical. We are too theoretical, we cram for everything and we cannot deny it. No doubt theory is dangerous without practice, but could you get as much value practically, before teaching as you could while teaching? Perhaps you could, but I have a vision that my student days were filled up with memory work and book-lore, and I fancy, after all, you would find these students also memorizing book forms, and losing sight of the fact that there is such a thing as a business world.

The last objection I have from those who feel it an injustice, is the fact, that they think the Department desires a very long and exhaustive thesis on "Accountancy." I do not agree with this. When the Department prescribed the present course, it called in a committee of the ablest and most experienced of the successful teachers in the Commercial Departments of the Province.

They drew up the present curriculum, and, in asking for the Essay, they had in view the fact that the other part of the course left out the practice in the office work. To meet this phase they asked the prospective Commercial Specialist to enter three different firms, representing the three different systems, and inspect personally the books of account; and to set down those facts in a concise manner, noting peculiar features, and labour-saving devices; with a copy of any exceptional feature, provided it was not especially forbidden by the business head. This is not asking too much, and indeed the value obtained far outweighs the cost of the labour. Indeed, if no other value accrues, you have at least come in touch with the business men and found out their wishes regarding their clerks.

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## CONTINUATION SECTION

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### *TEACHING THE WAR.*

W. E. MACPHERSON, B.A., LL.B.

Current history has for many years been prescribed both for Public and High School classes. Until last year, however, it was not specially stressed, nor did any examiner conceive it to be his duty to test the candidates on this branch of the work. Consequently, where it was taught, it was only incidentally, and with the wise purpose of arousing interest and making history more real by showing history in the making and by drawing analogies between the past and the present.

But the last week of July, 1914, has changed all that. Suddenly we are faced with an event of such overwhelming importance that it seems to dwarf not only what is happening elsewhere to-day but most of what has happened in the past, an event too overwhelming and too close to us for mere casual or incidental discussion. It brings us face to face with the issues of life. Ultimate principles of national and of personal conduct are involved. They are brought before us "fervid and burning, focussed in action."

The great importance of what is passing and of the issues at stake has been justly recognized by the Department of Education, which directs that special attention shall be paid in our schools to the causes of the war, the interests at stake, and to an intelligent knowledge of what has taken place so far as the stage of advancement of the pupils will permit. In this paper I shall attempt to deal with the subject only in so far as it relates to the work of classes in the Lower School of the High School course. What shall we teach and how shall we teach it?

First, the causes of the war, direct and indirect. With the younger pupils it will be well to teach only the direct causes



of the war, the conflict between Austria and Serbia, how the influence of Russia was exerted on behalf of Serbia, the intervention of Germany, the increasing endeavours of Sir Edward Grey to prevent the outbreak of violence or to restrict its limits—how Germany precipitated the struggle, just as Austria was inclining toward a settlement with Russia, the alliance between France and Russia, the invasion of Belgium and her appeal to Great Britain, the British demand that Germany respect the neutrality of Belgium, Great Britain's understanding with France, the final declaration of war.

I think it would not be wise with junior students to attempt to teach systematically the indirect causes. But these and the moral issues at stake are to some extent necessarily involved in any adequate understanding of the direct causes already outlined. The moral issues at stake must inform our whole teaching. Is might to be right? Have the weak no recourse against what the strong regard as necessary measures? Must not a State respect its solemn and deliberate engagements even at risk to itself? Has humanity no claims higher than State interest?

So far as the events of the war are concerned, what we can do and that largely incidentally (that is, a short five or ten minute conversation, with the class) is to furnish the class with such a background of knowledge as will enable them to understand what is happening about them from day to day and the general outlines of the war already past. We may speak with them of modern warfare, the geography of the areas of war, the outline organization of an army, squads, sections, platoons, companies, battalions, army corps, what a soldier carries, how soldiers eat and sleep, how armies are moved, what mobilization means, the speed of ships and aeroplanes, the types and ranges of guns, the mechanical problems that face every branch of the service. Here we may well call to our aid books, pictures, and models.

So far as the events are concerned, the chief need is a knowledge of geography of the regions concerned and the teaching of this is greatly simplified if the teacher of history is at the same time the teacher of geography. But the teacher who feels so keenly the limits of time is very apt to say, "This is all very well, we have a fair idea of what we are expected to teach; the point is, how can we find time to do it?" The first suggestion

I would make is a rather obvious one. Much of the work may, indeed must, be done out of school, for the great point is that the teacher himself must be informed. For this purpose he must have at his disposal sufficient books of reference to get that definite information which will enable him to answer concisely and accurately definite questions. If he has the keenness of interest, and the ready information, the class will soon discover it and be glad to draw on it. Under such circumstances the inquisitiveness of the class and the universal interest will almost solve the problem. Let me give an illustration. The class has heard that the Canadians have had to face a determined attack at St. Eloi. Where is it? Can the teacher go to the board and sketch rapidly the battle line from Flanders to Switzerland and indicate on it the main centres of conflict, Ypres, Lille, Armentieres, Rheims, Verdun, the line of the Aisne, show where the Canadians are, point to St. Eloi a few miles south of Ypres? Why not keep such a map posted? For detail maps, the daily or weekly journals are our best sources of information. When you get a good map, copy it or cut it out and post it on the notice board. But the hurried sketch map showing only the points between which you wish to mark the relationships is the best. The large war maps generally recommended are overwhelming in their detail and even then the little centre we look for is probably not there. The handiest guide is probably the "Map-Book of the World-Wide War," published by Nelson & Co., 25c.

First then, be ready to answer the questions of the students in the class. Among other sources of information for the teacher which are concise and useful, a list of which the Department of Education has issued, I may notice particularly the articles in "The School" and the little book, "How Armies Fight"; J. Holland Rose's "The Origins of the War"; and the Diplomatic Documents relating to the outbreak of the war and Professor Kylie's interpretation of them: "Who Caused the War";—total \$1.15—and of course the Children's Story of the War—the prescribed text-book—and Sir Max Aiken's "Canada in Flanders," the official story of the Canadian Expeditionary Force.

Second, the teacher may himself suggest for discussion from time to time problems to which the class will be able to contribute at least a part of the solution. Why is it necessary for

Great Britain to maintain so strong a fleet? Why is the possession of Constantinople of so much importance? What led Great Britain to undertake the campaign on the Tigris? What is the importance of the Bagdad railway? Why did Germany build the Kiel Canal? What was the cause of the Balkan Wars? What is meant by Pan-Germanism? Why did Germany meditate an attack on Egypt? Obviously much of this is the opportunity of the geography teacher, especially of commercial geography. The line cannot be strictly drawn.

To attempt to teach the indirect causes of the war would involve a course in the history of Modern Europe at least from 1815 to 1871, and this cannot be expected from pupils in the Lower School. But even here we may expect that in teaching the History of England the teacher will keep in mind matters of immediate interest and, to quote from a memorandum of the English Board of Education, September, 1914, "use the history of the past to place the events of the present in their proper perspective. In accordance with this general principle it is very desirable and quite possible to bring out more clearly than is generally done, the importance of certain aspects of English history. For instance, the growth of the Navy and its importance in the defence of England at times such as those of the Spanish Armada and the great wars with France will gain fresh significance from present events. The great work done by the Navy in the half century between Hawke and Nelson, in this sphere the outstanding feature of British history does not generally receive adequate treatment. The part taken by a British army in past continental wars, and the reasons why it was there, will now be studied with special interest. Again, certain aspects of foreign history may also be more fully treated than is usual. It will be possible to point out how the remote past still lives in the present, as, for instance, in the existence of a debatable territory between France and Germany which is ultimately due to the division of the Empire of Charles the Great; the reasons why the Low Countries have so often been the seat of war between the Greater Powers, and the continuity of English policy with regard to the independence of this district of Europe from the time of Edward the First. Matters such as these naturally arise in the course of any well-directed study of English history.

Ignorance' of them prevents any real comprehension of British foreign relations, of the part that Great Britain has taken in continental wars and of the ideals and principles by which our country has been guided in the past.

There is no surer source of courage than the study of past achievements and no better school of wisdom than the recognition of past mistakes."

So far as the narrative of the war is concerned, pupils who possess, or have access to the Children's Story of the War, with its simple style and graphic illustrations, will read for themselves as much as they can at their stage understand. Particular subjects may be set for home work, as in the ordinary history lesson. The lesson in civics may contrast the parliamentary government of Great Britain with that form of government which in Germany allowed the dominance of a military caste. Pupils may be introduced to reference books and encouraged to dig out for themselves the information they seek. Where they have access to abundant daily papers, pupils may be encouraged to make scrap-books from Canadian papers and mail them to soldiers at the front.

After all, information about the war is of little importance compared with the cultivation of the right frame of mind toward these events and a proper appreciation of our opportunities for service. In this, our schools have not been backward. Everywhere teachers and pupils are doing their part. Older pupils and teachers, where they have opportunity, drill. All assist in making contributions to the Red Cross or making hospital supplies; all who can, knit, or make contributions of money for the aid and comfort of our soldiers.

The spirit which should animate teachers in dealing with the war has been well expressed by Mr. Joseph A. Pease, President of the Board of Education in England, in an open letter to the teachers of England shortly after the outbreak of the war:—

"The teachers can do more than anyone else to help their pupils, according to their age and capacity, to see why the cause upon which we are united is just; to feel, if they cannot fully understand, the meaning of liberty and of that free national life which every country, whether great or small, is right to cherish and defend. The pupils can be shown that we are involved in



war by stern necessity, that we are fighting in the cause of peace and against the spirit of aggressive domination which is the great enemy of peace. They can be inspired to appreciate those high qualities of patience, forethought, perseverance, and steadfastness which are as needful for victory as the dash and enterprise which naturally move young minds the most. They can learn to be neither unduly exultant nor unduly depressed, to be proud of their race and country without arrogance, to be specially considerate and generous to others in need or distress. In particular, they can be reminded of our duty of courtesy and forbearance towards foreigners of whatever race, living peaceably among us. They can be brought to realize how hateful war is in itself and in the desolation and suffering it involves, so that in the full vigour of a national spirit they may hereafter become workers for the concord of nations, and lay the foundations of enduring peace.

We must see to it that neither we nor those who come after us lose faith; that these seven millions of children may grow up still believing in national honesty and goodwill, in generosity, in humanity, in the supreme blessing of peace."

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*SOME PROBLEMS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF  
CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.*

WM. PAKENHAM, B.A.

Eight years have made great changes in the Continuation Schools:—

91 schools have become 131.

119 teachers have become 237.

3,993 pupils have become 6,009.

\$25,000 in crown grants has become \$69,000.

\$26,000 in value of equipment has become \$75,000.

No educational activity in this Province can show such a record.

With rapid growth there are growing pains. The growing pains of a school system are symptoms of mal-adjustment to environment, and constitute the problems of that system. Despite revisions and amendments that are persistent enough to make the Continuation School law “a hardy perennial,” the Continuation School is not yet adjusted to its environment. It has growing pains. It bristles with problems.

There is the problem of the name. The name “Continuation School” or “Fortbildungsschule” is relatively modern. It was used first in Germany. Its use is now most common in Germany, Great Britain, and the eastern United States. It defines or describes “a school or training adapted for people already at work.” Among us the analogues of this Continuation School are Apprenticeship Schools, Evening, Correspondence, Industrial, Technical, Commercial, or Extension Schools. Now, these are not the Continuation Schools that we know in Ontario and that you represent.

Other contrasts appear on closer examination.

Adapted for people already at work the Continuation School outside Ontario appeals primarily to a special class of students—not the professional class, not the leisured class, not the class who seek culture for culture’s sake, but the workshop or office class, the handicraft or clerk class. For the same reason it has to find special hours for its services. In Germany it is in action in the late afternoons, or in the evenings, or on Sundays. In

England and the United States, unless where it assumes the form of a part-time school, it is open in the evenings. Day instruction is almost always and everywhere technical and industrial. Evening instruction is generally technical and sometimes cultural, or—as might be expected where students have done a day's work at the work bench or counter—even recreative. Because the instruction interferes with the economic rights of employers and parents, it tends to develop co-operation among employers, parents, and students. And because it is expensive to administer, and wasteful if neglected, it tends to become compulsory.

These tendencies—to appeal to the counter and work bench, to offer technical and industrial instruction, to adopt irregular hours for instruction, to evolve co-operation, and to become compulsory—are fundamental in the Continuation Schools. But they are not fundamental in the Continuation Schools that we know in Ontario and that you represent. With us, therefore, “Continuation Schools” is a misnomer. Why did we call it “Continuation School?”

Here the problem of the name brings us face to face with a far more important problem—the problem of the function of the Continuation School.

Ontario High Schools flourished bravely between 1880 and 1895. This may have been due to the vigour of the High School inspectors. The present Superintendent of Education was a High School inspector in those days. Ontario Public Schools marked time between 1880 and 1895. This may have been due to poverty. John Millar was Deputy Minister of Education in 1893 at \$1,800 a year. It may have been due to the weakness of the Public School men who had the Minister's ear in those days or to the remoteness of Public School men from the Minister's ear. Whatever the cause, the politician was not slow to size up the situation. He protested against the pampering of the High Schools, “the caste schools of the Province,” and against the neglect of the Public Schools, “the colleges of the people.” Mr. Ross, then Minister of Education, was very sensitive to criticism and hastened to meet the protest. For the moment he seemed to withdraw his favour from the High Schools. It was wise, he wrote, to avoid creating a multiplicity of High Schools, and to avoid adopting methods which would force Public

School children to attend High Schools. On the other hand, he urged, there are in the Province 170 urban centres and a far greater number of rural sections which are unserved by High Schools and whose instruction ends with the Fourth Form of the Public Schools. This is too low a standard. The Public School pupil must not be neglected. And incidentally, of course, the politician must be robbed of his stock in trade. In 1896 Mr. Ross re-established instruction in the Fifth Form of the Public Schools and authorized and subsidized its prolongation into regions beyond. But, thought Mr. Ross, it must remain Public School instruction, offered by the Public School Board through the Public School teacher and in the Public School spirit. And as to a name—well, the name High School was taboo. In England just then they talked much about the German Continuation School. The new institution would “continue” the instruction of the first four Forms of the Public Schools. Why not call it “Continuation Classes?” Regardless of the nature or purpose of the original Continuation School, this was done. Hence the misnomer.

Gradually Mr. Ross and Mr. Harcourt worked out a curriculum for the Continuation Classes. That curriculum despite very earnest efforts to evolve something different, something with a distinctively Public School spirit, was the ordinary High School curriculum. And necessarily so. The politician to the contrary, the High Schools were the people's schools and gave the people what they wanted. Moreover, their curriculum was the only advanced curriculum yet evolved. And so whenever the High School curriculum was revised the curriculum of the Continuation Schools followed suit. If the stress was removed from grammar or Latin or book-keeping in the one curriculum, it was at once removed in the other. If elementary science, agriculture, household science, manual training, art, school gardens and laboratory work were added to the one they were at once added to the other. In their curriculum the Continuation Classes were, and continued to be, High Schools, smaller High Schools, *junior* High Schools, if you will.

In Inspector Cowley's first report—that of 1907—one catches the first note of discontent with this situation. The rural school problem had begun to press for solution. All rural schools, ele-



mentary and secondary, must unite, it was urged, to arrest the exodus from the rural districts. If High Schools, the institutions of larger urban centres, are to give a general culture with a bias towards either the professions or commercial pursuits, Continuation Classes, which are near to the heart of the country both in situation and in student-body, must give a general culture with a bias towards agricultural pursuits. Let the High School minister to the town. The Continuation Classes must save the country.

This first note of discontent is reiterated with increasing emphasis in the annual reports of Dr. Waugh, Mr. Mills, and Mr. Hoag. Many reforms are effected. Many are suggested. Revenues increase, buildings rise, curricula expand, the administration improves, the Province learns how to spend money upon industry and agriculture, but the Continuation Classes, or the Continuation School, as it now came to be known, remains in purpose and spirit, a High School.

Thus it has come about that the Ontario Continuation School is to-day without a name or a function which is distinctively or exclusively its own.

Shall the name be changed? Not yet. It is no mean achievement to bring the High School to every home in the land. Through the Continuation School Ontario has done this. The present function amply justifies the existence of the school. When the new function is sought it will be found in instruction in agriculture. But, agitate as we may, the rural districts are not yet ready for such instruction. They do not yet quite realize that they need it; they don't quite believe that schools can give it; they are not yet quite persuaded to pay for it. On the other hand they do need instruction in the ordinary High School subjects; Continuation Schools have proved that they can give it; rural districts are quite ready to pay for it. And so the old function persists. Meanwhile let us all, Department, Inspectors, and teachers be missionaries, in and out of season, in behalf of a special function for the Continuation School. Possibly we shall find that function when we find the Consolidated School.

A third problem is the teacher. As compared with the High School teacher the teacher of a Continuation School is a "bird of passage." "He darts out of the darkness of the training

school into the light of the Continuation School, is visible for a moment, and then darts out into the darkness of the High School or of the great world outside." So a correspondent describes him. He is a transient—a pedagogical tramp. This has been explained by the fact that in 68 per cent. of the cases (only 45 per cent. in the High Schools) this teacher is a woman and, in the professional sense, woman, especially the young woman of the Continuation School staffs, "is notoriously unstable." It has been explained by the fact that three-quarters of the Continuation Schools are located in rural and semi-rural districts, where social life is not always exhilarating. It has been explained by the fact that the task of the Continuation School teacher is a grievous burden. In rare cases it consists of one-third of the Lower and Middle School work, in very many cases of one-half of the Lower and Middle School work, and in not a few cases of two-thirds of that work. Perhaps the best explanation is to be found in the fact that the salaries of Continuation School teachers are unreasonably low. A High School principal is paid on the average \$1,813 per year; a Continuation School principal \$1,086. The Average High School assistant is paid \$1,359; the Continuation School assistant \$740. And in neither case does the greater burden go with the greater salary. Whatever the causes, the results are obvious. In their teaching staffs, Continuation Schools are blessed—or burdened—with more than their share of immaturity—twenty years is the minimum age—and inexperience—the teachers come red-hot from the training schools—and instability—these teachers are peripatetic. It is claimed that consolidation will help to solve the problem by providing more attractive social conditions. It is certain that higher salaries will help to solve it. But higher salaries may be obtained only by minimum salary legislation, or by restraint in the production of teachers, or by larger provincial grants which are earmarked for salaries. The first two of these devices are politically and economically bad. Is the last feasible to-day? There is the kernel of this problem.

The last problem has to do with the teaching in Continuation Schools. Many years ago as a young assistant under his first inspection in a two-master High School, I made bold to say to the Inspector something like this:—

"If I were to repeat my High School course I should prefer just such a school as this—a small school with not more than two teachers. Here, forced to do much of my work without assistance, I ought to grow in independence and resourcefulness." The Inspector replied somewhat as follows: "And I, if I were to repeat my High School course, should choose the largest and most highly-organized Collegiate Institute in the Province. There, forced to accept careful and persistent guidance, I should expect to grow in accuracy and extent of scholarship, in patience, and in the capacity for taking pains." Here are the two extremes in secondary training in Ontario. Move towards either extreme and you both gain and lose. Move towards the Continuation School and you gain in independence and initiative and lose in scholarship and the passion for details. Does the loss ever out-balance the gain? Is the price ever too great to pay? A thousand times "no."

But can we reduce the price to be paid? Yes. How? That is the problem. Something may be done by the steady pressure which eliminates the one-master school, by the evangel which increases the revenues and therefore the staffs, and by adjustments which reduce the number of obligatory subjects and co-ordinate those that remain.

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## SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT

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### *RETARDATION AND HOW TO PREVENT IT.*

BY HENRY CONN, PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

Retardation is the hand-maiden of elimination. Of recent years a large amount of statistical data has been gathered concerning these features of public school education. No one who examines these data and gives the matter even superficial consideration can doubt for a moment that retardation is a fruitful cause of elimination. Of pupils who fail to complete the public school course a very large number are retarded pupils. It follows, therefore, that if we find a cure for the one we shall at the same time find a means of reducing the other.

In relation to retardation two questions arise: What is a retarded pupil? and what shall be our standard in determining retardation?

Dr. Ayres of the Russell Sage Foundation defines a retarded pupil as one who is over age for the grade in which he is placed. This definition appeals to me as most satisfactory for administrative purposes and for the purposes of this discussion. Physical age is an index of physical, mental and moral development. In most cases a child of ten will be a misfit in a grade the pupils of which are in the main eight years old.

The question also arises to what extent does retardation obtain in our public schools? Available Canadian statistics relating to this would seem to be very meagre. Conditions in Canadian cities are, I believe, very similar to those obtaining in many American cities. From an examination of statistics relating to schools in American cities and the meagre statistics which I had available to Canadian schools I conclude that of the pupils enrolled in our public schools about 15 per cent. are retarded pupils.



Another point I might mention in passing is this: The percentage of retardation would seem to be considerably higher than the percentage of elimination. This is to be expected, inasmuch as a considerable number of the retarded pupils stick it out and complete the course at the age of 16 or 17 or even 18.

So much for retardation. It is now our duty to consider how to prevent it. Complete prevention is of course impossible. Retardation we shall always have with us in spite of our very best efforts to prevent it. The best we can hope to accomplish is to somewhat lessen it.

In order to arrive at means of prevention we should first examine the causes and determine how far preventable causes are operative in producing retardation. That would take considerable time; and I desire to be brief. Consequently I shall proceed at once to an examination of causes which are obviously preventable. In considering the causes of retardation I really think we should give the first place to ignorance—ignorance on the part of some of the Inspectors and Principals concerning retardation. I may say that among the Inspectors I include the Inspector for West Lambton. There is a tendency to accept retardation as something foreordained and inevitable, an evil which cannot be cured and must be borne. As such, it receives only passing notice and consideration. It is unnecessary to point out that this is a wrong attitude. Before applying the cure we should study the patient. I therefore think it is highly important that we should gather information concerning retardation. If each Principal were required to answer the question: To what extent does retardation obtain in my school? If each Inspector were required from time to time to ask himself the question: "To what extent does retardation obtain in my inspectorate?" Answers to these questions would be pretty certain to start these officials on the road to find a means of keeping the thing in check.

I believe that another important cause of retardation is improper organization. The schools should be so organized as to offer the pupils facilities for skipping grades. In his interesting annual reports of the Ottawa Public Schools Dr. Putman shows what has been done in this regard with the Ottawa Public Schools and he gives some interesting figures in relation to the results obtained.

Under present conditions pupils in ungraded schools have ample facilities for skipping grades. But in many graded schools the organization is such as offers absolutely no facilities to enable pupils to complete the course or any part of the course in less than schedule time. The result is that where a pupil fails of promotion through sickness or other unavoidable cause he is denied any chance of making it up.

Uniform promotion examinations is another cause of retardation and I believe a very potent one. Teachers feel that their professional reputations rest on the results of these examinations. Consequently every teacher is obsessed with a desire to show a clean sheet in relation to the promotions. She wishes to have it said that every pupil in her class who wrote on the promotion examinations was successful in passing. The desire is a very natural one; but it makes for retardation in two ways.

In the first place the teacher will exert herself to prevent pupils from writing on the examination until she is absolutely sure they can pass. It may be that the teacher is sure that the pupil can do the work of the next grade reasonably well. It may be that she knows that the pupil would derive more benefit from a year in the next grade than he would from repeating the work of present grade, but the interests of the pupils are not in the least considered. He is held back in the hopes either that he will improve sufficiently to make it certain that he will pass the examination, or that he will quit school altogether. He becomes a retarded pupil in order that the professional reputation of his teacher may be enhanced or protected. Personal experience leads me to say that it requires the utmost vigilance on the part of the principals and the inspectors to prevent the occurrence of cases of this kind.

Under pressure of uniform promotion examinations the teacher will attempt not merely to hold back weaker pupils of her own class but consciously or unconsciously she will attempt to hold back weaker ones of the next grade below. This is done through no desire to escape hard work but through fear for her professional reputation. The result is that when the Principal and the Inspector suggest the promotion of pupils who have come near passing they are met with a storm of protest; and they listen to tales of woe in relation to pupils who were similarly promoted

last year. It is absolutely impossible for the unfortunate officials concerned to weather such a storm without losing some of the cargo. As a matter of fact they usually throw some of the cargo overboard before the storm breaks.

There is another class of retardations which are caused by promotion examinations but which are also related to organization and administration. Where the schools are so organized that a teacher has charge of two classes, consisting of a junior grade and a senior grade, such as a junior second class and a senior second class, from time to time an occasional pupil is quietly dropped from the senior class to the junior class. It is the pressure of promotion examinations which causes them to do this and it requires the utmost vigilance to prevent it.

To prevent the retardation incidental to promotion examinations the first plan that presents itself is the entire abolition of promotion examinations. This plan has been adopted in the Ottawa Public Schools and after a two years' trial Dr. Putman reports that it is working reasonably well.

But promotion examinations have their advantages as well as their disadvantages and many people will object to their abolition. Where they are retained they should never be made the sole basis of promotion. If they are used at all they should be used along with the class records and the teacher's recommendation. Not only this, but this status of the promotion examination should be made clear to all parties concerned: teacher, parents and pupils. Teachers, parents and pupils should know that where a pupil fails on the promotion examination he does not necessarily fail of promotion.

While I do not urge the abolition of promotion examinations I do feel that they should be relegated to a place much inferior to that which they now occupy. Of the three tests I attach the greatest importance to the teacher's recommendation where the teacher has had some experience and is reasonably efficient.

Of inefficient teaching as a cause of retardation I wish only to say that I would class as inefficient any teacher who failed to give special attention to retarded pupils. I presume it follows as a logical sequence that Principals and Inspectors who fail to keep track of retarded pupils and to urge on the teachers the claims of such pupils are likewise inefficient.

Other causes of retardation such as ill-health, mental weakness, over age in starting to school and bad home surroundings may all, I think, be classified as non-preventable and as such do not lend themselves to this discussion.

In the last analysis I think we shall find that the most potent cause of retardation is to be found in the character of the curriculum. I am of the opinion that many retarded pupils are such chiefly because they are attempting a course of study utterly unsuited to their needs and aptitudes. But so far as the members of this Department are concerned, this also must be classified as a non-preventable cause and consequently outside the sphere of this discussion.

In conclusion, I may say that I regard retardation as a very serious evil, inasmuch as it involves probably 15 per cent. of the pupils enrolled in our public schools and inasmuch as it is a powerful factor leading to the elimination of about 10 per cent. of our pupils annually. As preventative means I recommend:—

1. That school records be of such a nature as to show the nature, the extent and the location of retardation.
  2. That the organization be of such a nature as to offer maximum facilities for skipping grades.
  3. That retarded pupils be kept track of and given special care and attention.
  4. That uniform promotion examinations be entirely abolished or that they be at least relegated to a very minor place in determining promotions.
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*WASTE IN EDUCATION.*

J. H. PUTMAN, D.PÆD., INSPECTOR OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,  
OTTAWA.

I have noticed that with many preachers, the sermon is essentially the same no matter what the text may be. I am of the opinion that this is largely true of the man who speaks on education. No matter what his topic may be he has before him the whole field of education. This is certainly true of the topic now under discussion. It touches every phase of the work of education. Waste in education means inefficiency, and a discussion on inefficiency brings under criticism every factor that has to do with education. It includes the course of study—what that course is, how it is arranged, its order of presentation to the child, how much of it, if any, shall be compulsory, and how much optional. It includes a discussion of the Statutes and Regulations bearing on education, especially as they apply to compulsory attendance, medical and dental inspection, consolidated schools, the construction of school buildings, including their heating, lighting and ventilation, playgrounds and school gardens, text-books and supplies, school libraries and everything that has to do with the machinery of a school. It includes the teacher, his training, academic and professional, how he should be appointed, how he should be paid, when he should be retained, and when dismissed, and how he can be encouraged to do his best work. It includes a study of the home—the environment of the child—in order that the school may widen the child's experience in a natural way. It includes a study of the organized society around the home in order that the school may choose its instruction and plan its typical experiences to meet the needs of that society. It includes a study of the industrial life of the neighbourhood or locality in order that as the child's school life draws near a close the school may aid him to find his place as a productive member of society and prevent him from being exploited by the man who can offer him only a blind-alley job.

Waste in education includes all these and many other topics. I propose to emphasize what seem to me to be three or four forms

of waste that are most serious and to point out how, in my opinion, an improvement is possible. I shall first deal with the problem as it affects the rural school. I am speaking to inspectors who have scores of small schools where the average attendance is 15 to 25 pupils. I am speaking to some inspectors whose average attendance per teacher for the whole inspectorate is under 20 and to several whose average is only slightly above 20. I know that in many cases where the attendance is low no improvement or radical change is possible. The neighbourhoods are sparsely settled and the present system is the only one that will meet the needs of the people and give their children the elements of an English education. But I am speaking to many who have small schools in old settled districts, where the roads are fairly good and where the schools could be greatly improved if two or three or more sections were thrown into one. A mile still contains 1,760 yards, but in spite of that fact it is growing shorter every year. Better roads and improved methods of transport will soon make a whole township no larger than a school section was fifty years ago when the section was laid out. Are the schools not to benefit from this application of science to transportation? Is the ox-cart to set a pace for the school long after the farmers themselves travel in automobiles? I am convinced that for many parts of older Ontario the time has come for an aggressive campaign for consolidated schools and that such schools would not only eliminate an actual waste that now exists but that their establishment would give us a better type of school than is now possible. Especially it would give us real school gardens, where nature study and elementary agriculture could receive that attention which it demands in a farming community. It would also make possible the teaching of sewing, cooking, and domestic art for country girls and lessen the desire that many of them have to live in towns or cities. A four or a six-room school with five acres of land around it and a comfortable residence for a male principal would make possible a school which would be a source of sweetness and light for the whole community. A really good library would be possible. Literature, history, and elementary science, those subjects which have a satisfying content for adolescent boys and girls, could be so presented that the children would think it worth while to remain at school as long as possible. I

am not pleading for a system which will prevent boys and girls from going away from home to a high school. A certain number will always go. But I do plead for a good school within reach of the home of every boy and girl—a school which will do more for them than merely teach them to read, write, and cast accounts. I know that more than this is attempted now in the small schools, but I know, too, that in many cases and for the mass of the children little more than this is actually done.

Another source of waste in rural schools—indeed I might say a positive detriment to their improvement—is the multiplicity of school authorities. There are inspectors in this room whose schools have nearly 300 managers, a small army. Everybody's business is nobody's business. The responsibility for the schools in any county in Ontario is resting on too many shoulders. No one pair of shoulders feels the weight keenly enough. Two-thirds of the men chosen to manage the schools have no real fitness for the task. They are all or nearly all good men and good citizens, but they are not fitted to deal with problems of education. They themselves will admit this. How can a county inspector work with 300 men, one-third of whom change every year? We have carried local control to a ridiculous farce in some cases and in other cases are stifling it where it ought to be strengthened. The rural school boards have no real power beyond engaging the teacher and the janitor and determining the kind of school building. They have almost nothing to say about the course of study and the text-books. A county board of five men and women, elected by the people or appointed by the county council to manage all the schools of the county, elementary or high, would be just as democratic as our present system and would make progress much easier. Its natural corollary would be a uniform county rate for the support of schools and this, too, would be a step in advance of our present method. The county inspector would then become the technical adviser of this county board. Consolidation of small schools would be more easily brought about; a better teaching staff would be secured. Fewer changes would take place among the teachers, since a teacher would seldom move from one school to another in the same county. Supplies, including library books, could be bought in large quantities and at lowest prices. Better schools, properly lighted, heated and



ventilated, would be built for less money and waste eliminated in a dozen other ways. The county inspector would become less and less a school visitor reporting on the conditions as he finds them and more and more a trusted adviser giving every ounce of his strength and all his powers to improving the schools in his district. In my opinion, county boards with power to establish consolidated schools would give us the machinery which in the course of time could gradually eliminate in our rural schools a large part of the present waste due to small classes, irregular attendance, unsuitable buildings, faulty and expensive supplies, inefficient teaching, and frequent change of teachers.

Let us now turn to urban schools. Here we find in almost every case the traditional 8-year grading above the Kindergarten. Does anyone know the origin of this system? Can anyone tell why it was fixed at 8 years instead of 5 or 7 or 9 years? Has it been fixed at 8 years because of some thorough philosophical investigation upon the subject of child development, or has it been so fixed by accident? Or is there some magical attraction in the number 8 because of it being the cube of 2 or a multiple of 2 and 4? Prof. Judd, of Chicago University, says that as 14 years was the age of confirmation for boys and girls in Europe and the age at which the children of the lower class left school to go to work, so America, copying the caste system of Europe, fixed upon 14 years as the limit of the compulsory school age. Whether or not that be true there is no doubt that we in Canada have copied the United States in making 14 years the limit of compulsory school attendance and also in making an 8-year course for urban elementary schools. That this 8-year course is irrational, unnecessary, and wasteful can, I think, be proved. In the first place 14 years is neither the beginning nor the end of the adolescent period, and not a natural point to break a school course. Adolescence usually begins between the 12th and the 13th year and furnishes us with biological and psychological reasons for a break at this point in the course of study and the organization of the school. Failure on the part of teachers and school managers to understand the changes that take place in boys and girls at the beginning of adolescence is responsible for more school troubles than any other single cause. We may truly say of the adolescent that he is born again. He moves in a new



world. He puts away childish things and thrills with wider sympathies, bigger plans, and higher aspirations. He ought never to be taught in a class the majority of whom are pre-adolescents, and he ought never to be taught by a man or woman who lacks a keen insight into the spiritual attitude of one who is neither boy nor man, girl nor woman, but a dweller and a dreamer in a borderland where much is strange and where even the old familiar things have new aspects and changing relations.

I cannot take time to set this matter forth in elaborate form. Nor do I need to do so. I surely may assume what has been proved over and over again, and what is a well-known fact by every student of education, that with the beginning of adolescence there should be a radical change in the type of school. Does this not point to the fact that the purely elementary period of education should be completed before adolescence? Does not the fact that hundreds of pupils in ungraded country and village schools complete our present elementary course before they are 13 years old prove that the course is not too heavy for a normal child who is well taught? Even in cities where the highly graded system prevails scores of children every year by some fortunate accident slip through the promotion examination mesh irregularly and finish the course before they have reached their 13th year. I am convinced, and my conviction rests upon the bed-rock of school-room experience, that the average Canadian child who enters the primary class in our elementary schools when he is 6 or 6½ years old, who attends regularly, and who is taught by wise and well-trained teachers, can easily complete the course of study in 6 years or before his 13th birthday. I am convinced that our 8-year grading encourages both pupils and teachers to dawdle, to move with a lock-step, to make overmuch of tedious reviews and written examinations, to sacrifice a healthy and vigorous growth to a pernicious and unnatural thoroughness, to grind and grind again as with a pepper-mill a small and uninteresting content instead of digesting a full and satisfying meal of wholesome, nourishing and savoury food.

I may be told that even with our 8-year course thousands of children cannot keep up and have to repeat one or more grades. So would there be many who could not keep up if we had the course divided into 10 years or 12 years. If I am told that

some subjects, arithmetic, e.g., could not be mastered in 6 years, then my answer is so much the worse for the arithmetic; some of it must go overboard. And I venture to affirm that 90 per cent. of the adults who have passed through a full Ontario public school course would to-day bear cheerful testimony that much of the arithmetic taught them has proved to be absolutely useless and that the time given to it was largely wasted.

Partly our trouble has been and is yet that we teach all children in the elementary schools certain things that can be of possible use only to the few who will later take a high school course. We sacrifice the many for the sake of the few. Our public school standards and programmes have been fixed to suit the ideas of the high school men. The tail has wagged the whole dog and the result has been a terrific waste in the elementary school.

Let us now examine the most apparent savings that would result from a six-year elementary school course. First of all, we have saved for the child 25 per cent. of his time, which if properly used should advance him a considerable distance on a secondary school course. We have saved the urban ratepayer 25 per cent. of his elementary school tax and this saving will pay for nearly or quite two years in the secondary school. We have greatly increased the child's chances of securing a secondary education. If he can begin this secondary course before he reaches his 13th birthday, or even when he reaches it, there is a greater probability that he will stay long enough to secure some real benefit than there is now when he enters at 14½ years. Most important of all is the desirability of having the child enter a secondary school when his childhood is over and that, as I have shown, is normally just before he is 13 years of age. He needs a different type of school because he is developing into a different type of being.

I now ask you to approach the subject from another point of view. I can easily prove that in our larger urban centres—Toronto, Ottawa, Hamilton, London and Kingston—not more than one-quarter of the whole number of pupils registered in the schools ever pass the Entrance Examination. Of those who pass a very considerable number never attend a high school and of those who enter a high school at least half drop out at the end

of the first or second year. This all means waste. It means that our elementary schools are either lacking in efficiency or are attempting to do what is impossible. It means that our secondary schools begin a great deal of work which is left so unfinished that it has little value. If our elementary course were shortened by two years we should increase and not lessen the number who would complete it and if our secondary course were begun two years earlier we should greatly increase the number who would complete it.

Why do so many pupils drop out of the public school before completing the course and why do so many begin a high school course and give it up without receiving a lasting benefit? I think the answer is easy. Pupils reach the age of 14 years and find themselves still in grade 6 or 7. The instruction in many ways does not satisfy their needs and they leave school. Adolescents in their 15th year naturally will not be satisfied with lessons planned for pupils of 12 and 13 years. Nor will they be satisfied with the methods of discipline and the general school atmosphere which suits children of 12 and 13 years. They crave for the company of their equals—not their equals in a knowledge of recurring decimals, cube root, true discount, gerundial infinitives, or conjunctive adverbs—but their equals from a human, social, “chummy” point of view. If they cannot find this companionship in the school they can find it in the shop or factory or even in the street. Pupils who begin a high school course and voluntarily give it up in three cases out of four do so because they find the course offered has no interest for them or because in order to pursue some course in which they are interested they must also pretend to pursue two or three courses in which they are not interested.

All this is wrong and extremely wasteful. A six-year elementary course would not be a panacea. We shall always have school problems that defy solution. But a six-year course would, I think, make possible many improvements. It would make some form of secondary education the natural thing for every child in a town or city and it would be no small step in advance if our citizens as a whole could get the point of view that every child is entitled to a school life extending up to his 16th birthday.

I yield to no man in my belief in and my admiration for a democratic government. A democratic government means a democratic school and a democratic school means a school open without fees to all the children of all the people. I regret that we have not yet reached this democratic stage and that many of our high schools impose fees which tend to make these schools class institutions. But when urban centres get a six-year course and 75 per cent. of their pupils complete that course before they are 13 years of age our whole school system will be re-adjusted. We shall have the compulsory school age extended to 16 years. We shall have free secondary schools—not only to give vocational training for teachers, lawyers, doctors, clergymen, clerks and bankers—but free secondary schools offering pre-vocational and vocational training for printers, plumbers, bricklayers, moulders, electricians, bookbinders, tinsmiths, milliners, dressmakers, painters, salesmen, and every other recognized trade or calling in the surrounding social organism.

I have said nothing of the enormous waste in our schools due to poor teaching. In my opinion, this waste would be less in urban centres with a six-year course, partly because teachers would have to adopt more progressive methods and partly because the most inefficient among them would be more easily pressed to the wall. But the waste due to poor teaching can never be wholly eliminated. As Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler says, "It will be a long time before school boards will dismiss otherwise worthy young women simply because they cannot teach."

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*EDUCATIONAL WASTE.*

T. W. STANDING, B.A.

(Summary of Paper.)

This paper does not attempt a full discussion of the subject but deals briefly with a few instances of waste in connection with rural schools.

1. Loss due to poor attendance. The chief causes are (*a*) Failure of Trustees to have teachers ready for the opening day. (*b*) Illness of the regular teachers and lack of supply teachers. (*c*) Illness of pupils due to colds and infectious diseases. (*d*) Distance from school, bad roads and bad weather. (*e*) Carelessness of parents and keeping pupils at home to work. The remedies suggested are improved heating and ventilation and greater vigilance on the part of health officers to prevent loss of time through ill health and vigorous attention to the provisions of the Truancy Act.

2. Waste due to lack of permanence in the teaching profession and to the frequent changing of teachers. The latter evil could be counteracted to some extent by (1) equalizing the financial strength of the sections so that there would not be a constant moving of teachers from the weaker sections; and (2) by making a decided difference between the salaries paid to beginners and those paid to teachers of successful experience.

3. The waste due to poor teaching. This is perhaps the most important of all, but cannot be discussed in the brief time at my disposal.

4. There is waste due to faulty organization. For instance, the rural school with one teacher attempts to cover all the work of a fully graded urban school with a teacher for each grade. The remedy is to reduce the number of classes as much as possible. I would have the course covered by normal pupils in seven years instead of eight by making the Second Form a one-year course. Then the Junior and Senior Third Classes may be combined and also the Junior and Senior Fourth classes for practically all

subjects, except possibly arithmetic and grammar. This may be done by dividing the work of each of these forms into two parts, A and B, in such a way that either may be taken the first year and followed by the other. The Junior and Senior grades could thus take part A this year, part B next year and part A again the third year, so that each class would complete the course for the form in two years, but the teacher would have only five classes to teach instead of seven. In many rural schools already the practice is to combine classes, but I believe no systematic effort has been made to organize the courses to correspond with this classification.

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## INSPECTORS' SECTION

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### *UNIFORMITY v. DIVERSITY IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION.*

P. SANDIFORD, M.Sc. PH.D.

The ideal system of education would provide for the development in every child of all its useful powers and capacities. No serviceable gift of nature would be lost to the State through dearth of educational opportunity. All unserviceable gifts would either be allowed to atrophy through lack of stimulus and use, or be killed off in some way as soon as they made their appearance. Of necessity the educational energy of the State would be directed towards the individual child, not to a group of children. Educational administration would be infinitely diversified in form; uniformity would be an impossibility.

We are told that no two blades of grass are alike. Not having examined all the pairs I cannot say whether they are or not. But I am positive that I have never yet met two children who were alike. We all know that the children in our own families are not only different from all others, but they differ among themselves. We know that they have different powers and dispositions, and in the home we adopt different methods for their training. What is fish to one is poison to another. Yet when these same children are herded together with a number of children in an institution we call a school, then in some mysterious way we suppose them to have lost their individualities. All must now be treated exactly alike. All must study the same curriculum, all must read the same texts, all must write alike. In a word, all must go through the same educational mill, and we are fearfully upset, if, at the end of the process, nature has triumphed and prevented us from making all exactly similar—knowing the same things, thinking the same ideas, and behaving in the same fashion.

The foregoing statements are undoubtedly extreme, but there is far more truth in them than we are prone to recognize. The point I wish to make is that educators of all kinds, teachers and administrators, but especially the latter, have placed far too much emphasis upon the similarities of children and have neglected for the most part those traits in which they differ. They make a fetish of uniformity, because uniformity is easier to strive for than is diversity. Diversity, in fact, is a fearful nuisance and causes no end of work and difficulties for the administrator.

Let us consider individual differences of children a little more closely. These differences, it must be confessed, are not usually so patent as the similarities. Children are alike physically in that they have two arms, two legs, two eyes, two ears, and a nose. That the legs, arms, and other parts differ, and sometimes to an enormous extent, is apt to be overlooked. Yet the differences are of greater importance than the similarities. One has only to consult the cobbler and the tailor to realize that this is so. In the realm of intellect the variations are even greater. At a first glance the fact that most children can be taught to speak, read, write, and do arithmetic overshadows the more subtle fact that with respect to these abilities children differ most widely. It is true that children, if taken in the bulk, have each of their traits and capacities distributed more or less according to the curve of chance. This causes the majority to centre around the average, but the few extreme variations are of greater significance for mankind than the whole of the normal persons put together. In intellect, the Aristotles, Shakespeares and Newtons on the one hand, and the nameless idiots on the other, mean more for us than the whole of the mediocre group. The former, the illustrious, mark the milestones in the path of progress; the latter, the extremely subnormal, create for us some of the most pressing of our social problems.

If we consider children as individuals and not in the mass, we find each of them containing, nay, even consisting of, numberless quite distinctive traits, powers, and capacities. Education, as we indicated at the beginning, is simply the provision of the requisite stimuli for developing the useful ones to their fullest extent. As these children, these bundles of potential capacities, if we may so name them, are in no two cases alike, each requires



separate and distinctive educational treatment. Theoretically, there should be as many kinds of education as there are children, for education is an individual matter, not a matter of schools and classes.

Fortunately for educators, especially administrators, there is sufficient family likeness among children, not only physically, but intellectually and morally as well, to justify to some extent educating them in the mass and along the same lines. It is this fact that administrators have seized upon and devoted their whole attention to. Unfortunately for the world's progress, they have neglected the more difficult problem of individual differences and of extreme variations from the normal.

Let us take a few concrete cases to illustrate the point. First, the curriculum as a whole. In all countries the curriculum for schools is selected without very much reference to race, sex, or locality. The Jew of the ghetto is given the same subjects to study as the gentile on the farm. Boys and girls, without reference to sex differences, and often without reference to future careers, are taught the same subjects in the same way, from the same texts, and in North America, by the same teachers. We teachers and administrators of Ontario are especially guilty. The uniformity of our educational system, from the kindergarten to the university, is nothing short of scandalous. The boys and girls in the Ward of Toronto are taught in exactly the same fashion as the boys and girls of our northernmost backwoods. The arguments advanced in support of this policy run somewhat as follows: A democracy demands that all children of whatever station in life shall be given equal opportunities so far as education is concerned. Therefore the boy from the slum shall be given the same education as the boy from the castle, the boy in the rural district shall be given as good a chance as the boy in the city. Only by providing the same education can you be sure of granting equality of opportunity. Secondly, the intellectual heritage of the race is becoming so vast that the elementary school can pass on but a small part of it. This small section of knowledge must be carefully chosen and must be taught to everybody. Hence the curriculum for all must be uniform. There is a great deal of truth in both arguments, but the real reasons for the uniformity are, first, that each higher type of education dominates the

one next below it. The elementary school is dominated by the secondary school, which in turn is dominated by the university. As the university is mainly a preparatory school for the professions, it follows that the bulk of modern education, wherever found, has a distinctly professional bias. The second reason is ease in administration. The French Minister of Education who could boast that at a certain hour all the children of a certain grade throughout France were studying from a given page of a prescribed text may not have been administering a very worthy system, but he certainly was controlling an easy one. Exceptions, as every administrator knows, are a fearful bugbear; one exception causes infinitely more trouble than a thousand normal cases.

The argument about the educational inheritances of the race, while perfectly valid, may be carried too far. Somebody must decree just what inheritances must be passed on to the rising generation. In a uniform system a mistake in the selection affects everybody; in a diversified system only a part. As a matter of fact schools are notoriously conservative and many of the heritages which were valuable to past generations of scholars are still retained for the present, although their usefulness has vanished. Why is it that cube root still remains in our arithmetic texts, as well as questions about three pipes filling a cistern? The latter type of problem can be traced back to Archimedes, who gave it to his students at Alexandria. In actual life we need very few positive facts. We need to know how to read and write, to use a dictionary and gazetteer, and to perform the fundamental arithmetical operations. To know how to get knowledge is of far greater importance than knowing it. The plea that nothing useful should be taught in school is not so absurd as it sounds; the necessity for earning a living is a sufficient stimulus for most of us to force us to acquire enough knowledge of our trade or profession to carry us along.

Fortunately for the world the educational leaders in the various countries are beginning to realize the necessity of a more diversified education for the rising generation. We have only to contrast educational systems as we find them to-day with what was to be found fifty years ago in order to see the marked progress that has been made. In the main, however, progress has followed the line of differentiating the types of schools. We

have secondary schools that are predominantly classical or scientific, and a host of totally new types of schools, such as commercial and technological schools. The curriculum for each type is more or less uniform. What is really needed is a differentiation between schools, not between types of schools. Why should an elementary school in the city provide the same kind of education as a school in a sparsely populated rural district? Why, indeed, should the curricula of all the elementary schools of a city be uniform? Each school, within certain limits, should have its own curriculum, which is best suited to its own particular types of pupils. A certain amount of knowledge should be the common property of everybody, but the essential common minimum is much smaller than is generally supposed.

If we consider the separate branches of the curriculum the desire for uniformity is seen to be even more absurd. It is advantageous now for us all to spell alike. The invention of printing forced that particular uniformity upon us. And certain mathematical truths impose their own uniformity. Two and two will make four and nothing else but four, to the end of time. But why should we all write alike? As a matter of fact we don't. Yet thousands of valuable hours in school are absolutely wasted because of our endeavours to make everybody write alike. As soon as the stern pressure of the elementary school is relaxed, nature, in the form of our inherited muscular co-ordinations asserts her sway and we gradually attain our own individual styles of handwriting. One has only to study the handwriting of secondary school students, university students, and adults at large to note the gradual emancipation of handwriting from the thralldom of the elementary schools. I may make bold to say that the handwriting of the average adult is worse than it should be or would have been because of the cramping of the style in elementary schools. Some of us adults write so badly that we are forced to call in the aid of the typewriter. Uniformity of style in handwriting is an unmitigated nuisance and should never be striven for. We should, however, strive for speed, ease of execution, and legibility, and this latter factor depends more than anything else on spacing—first, spacing of words, then spacing of lines, lastly, spacing of letters. Uniformity in the matter of the shape of letters has much less influence upon legibility than is generally believed.



Another form that the desire for uniformity takes is in the question of attainment. We not only demand that all children shall write alike, but that all shall reach an equal attainment in every branch of knowledge. We usually call this demand the curse of examinations. But even in places where examinations exert little influence, we see the same craze for uniform attainment. How else can we explain the teacher's intense desire to see every child with no spelling mistakes and four sums right? Nature denies about three per cent. of us the ability to spell correctly. The unfortunate three are known as chronic bad spellers. They break the hearts of teachers, although in other subjects they may perform very creditably. The ideal of uniformity of attainment causes untold worry in the realm of spelling. In some branches the desire for uniformity would be ludicrous, if it were not so catastrophic. We try to teach music to the tone-deaf, and water-colour drawing to the colour-blind child. These are, of course, exceptions, but nature sets limitations upon achievement in every one of her gifts. Teachers and administrators should realize, and realize soon, that school cannot create powers, she can only develop them. Nature withholds some gifts from all of us; teachers try to do the impossible by trying to create them. When nature's gifts are given so sparsely to a child as to cause him to be classed among idiots, imbeciles, or feeble-minded, teachers then give up the task, but with normal children they fear to confess themselves beaten. Nature herself beats them; no amount of teaching can bring up all children to the same level of achievement.

Coming to a more delicate part of my subject, I mention the fact that uniformity of text-books within a state or city, I almost said within a school, is to be condemned for the same reason. I am fully aware that an authorized text is usually a pretty good text. It is usually not the best, but represents a good average. But why in the name of education should there be *one* text that is authorized? Why not twenty in each subject from which the teacher could choose that which suits his particular purpose best? No one text can suit the varying needs of a hundred schools or ten thousand scholars. To compel every child to use a particular text is nothing more or less than a denial of liberty. What suits one child may be unsuitable for another.



And I put down the habit of not reading among our population to the system of authorized texts. Why should pupils read other books when everything necessary for educational salvation (meaning advancement) is to be found within the backs of the authorized text? Ontario has come to a pretty pass when it even designates its classes as first book classes, second book classes and so on. Are we to become the people of a book like the Mohammedans or the Chinese? Then good-bye to progress; we shall become as conservative and helpless as they.

One should not blame administrators too severely for desiring uniformity; the fault is inherent in the office. The administrator's task is to make the system as efficient as possible. In obtaining this efficiency he automatically centralizes the system and makes it uniform. He cannot prepare a blank, or a return, or make a single requisition without unifying to some extent the system he administers. Diversity makes for chaos and disorder; uniformity for frictionless order. Small wonder, then that the administrator prefers the one to the other. In a uniform system he can keep his hand on every educational pulse of the State. In a diversified system he must of necessity delegate the bulk of the work to subordinates. And human nature hates a devolution of authority. Yet I believe it is best for real efficiency. The wonderful German machine is uniform and efficient to a degree. But the cost has been too great. It has been acquired at the cost of personal freedom. No people is essentially so docile and meek and unoriginal as the warlike German. If this war teaches us anything, it should at least warn us to beware of autocratic government, notwithstanding its efficiency through uniformity.

For what then, should administrators be blamed? The only thing for which they can possibly be blamed is over-zealousness in office. They should keep an open mind; they should try to believe that everything will not go to the dogs if a strict uniformity be not preserved; and, finally, they should learn to trust in others. Liberty freely given is seldom abused. And there is nothing quite so soul-destroying as an absence of freedom. It is because I believe that uniformity destroys liberty and that diversity creates it that I have ventured to address you on this topic to-day.

If time permitted, I could use other illustrations of the very real dangers of educational uniformity. The cure, I believe, is greater diversity. Diversity in education demands well-trained and wide-awake teachers and administrators. The introduction of greater freedom into the schools is full of dangers. It would probably be a dismal failure for some time. But I am convinced that it is along this path that educational salvation lies.

I have perhaps expressed extreme views, but I have expressed them deliberately and after mature consideration. The extreme view, I think, often helps us to a saner judgment than one more moderately expressed. It is for this reason that I have been so radical in my statements to-day.

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## TRAINING SECTION

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### *THE SCHOOL AND THE LIBRARY—A PLEA FOR GREATER CORRELATION.*

W. I. CHISHOLM, M.A.

Outside of the newspaper, the reading of the community is furnished largely by the Public Libraries. An investigation would probably show that these libraries are patronized by a comparatively limited number of families and individuals. The truth seems to be that Canadians do not, as a people, read either extensively or seriously. A very large percentage of Public Library patrons read more for recreation than for education or culture. That recreation must have a legitimate and important place in life, is readily conceded. But why should not a people's reading be given a more serious place in their development?

If an investigation were made into the reading habits of our young people after they leave school, I do not think that it would reveal a creditable condition of affairs, even from the standpoint of recreative reading.

The responsibility for this condition of affairs must rest upon the school as well as upon the home. What training are the young receiving at school that tends to fit them for choosing good reading and for cultivating good reading habits. Our teachers have received little or no training in this important department of their work, and are consequently not so well fitted as they should be to direct the reading habits of their pupils, or to inspire them with a taste for good literature.

Nor does modern family life, with its complexities, its tendency to materialism and its multiplicity of interests, provide the best environment for developing cultural reading habits. Then, too, the congestion of life in urban centres, and isolation of life in the country, are profoundly affecting child life, and are making the problems of child welfare increasingly more difficult.

The consensus of opinion among writers who have given expression to this phase of education is that children to-day have more opportunities for recreation than formerly; that many leave school long before they have acquired the education that should teach them how to live as well as how to earn a living; that in many homes fathers and mothers cannot train their children in right ideals of citizenship which they themselves may not understand; and that in other homes the physical needs of children are held to be of more importance, while mental and moral needs are left to the care of teachers and to church and social workers.

The time seems ripe for the placing of greater emphasis upon the work of the library as a factor in education. Let its educational work meet more and more the children's needs, increase their efficiency, teach them how to live and to be of greater service in the world's work.

That the educationists of the United States are becoming alive to the importance of this question is shown by the following Resolution presented in the Report of the Committee of the School Libraries' Section of the N. E. A. meeting held at St. Paul, Minn., in July, 1914:—

Resolved, That we record our conviction that, as a part of their educational equipment and staff, all schools should avail themselves of the same highly efficient library organization and service with which the general public is served. We regard the properly equipped and administered school library as fundamental in modern educational work; it facilitates, applies, and enriches the whole process of education. We, therefore, adopt the statement adopted by the American Library Association, as follows:—

“In view of the rapid growth of the school library and of the importance of its function in modern education, the following statement is presented for the consideration and approval of educational and civic authorities:—

1. Good service from school libraries is indispensable in modern educational work.

2. The wise direction of a school library requires broad scholarship, executive ability, tact, and other high-grade qualifications, together with special competency for the effective direction of cultural reading, choice of books, and teaching of reference principles.



3. Because much latent power is being recognized in the school library and is awaiting development, it is believed that so valuable a factor in education should be accorded a dignity worthy of the requisite qualifications. Further, it is believed that in schools and educational systems the director of the library should compare in scholarship, talent, and teaching power equally with the head of any other department of instruction in the same school; should be enabled, by having necessary equipment and assistants, to do progressive work; and should be recognized equally with the supervisors of other departments as an integral part of the education system."

It is one of the characteristics of the present that we are learning the necessity of saving time and effort by striving to do better the things that we can already do passably well. To this end vocational schools and courses are being established everywhere. If, in the interests of greater individual development and efficiency, the uses of the tools of the trades must be taught in technical and trade schools, there is equal need of teaching the efficient use of books which are the recognized tools of the professions and are more and more coming to be recognized as necessary supplements to the tools of the handicrafts.

So far, it must be admitted that there has not been much outspoken demand on the part of the Ontario educationists for courses of instruction on the uses of books and libraries. At the present time there is little real co-ordination between the Public Library system and our school system. This seems all the more strange when we consider that the primary purpose of both library and school is educational, and that many of the principles upon which each is based are more or less familiar to teachers and to librarians.

Mr. F. K. Walter, Vice-Director of the New York State Library-School, in a paper read before the American Library Association, at Ottawa, in July, 1912, instanced a few of these principles, as follows:—

1. Education is a continuous process, started, but not completed in school. This principle is generally accepted, and correspondence schools, summer courses, and similar activities are recognitions of its truth.

2. The complexity of modern life is lengthening the period of formal school instruction; and the rapid rise of new industrial processes and the social problems that follow in their wake, make it somewhat unsafe to rely too much upon either past instruction or individual personal experience.

3. Education is not confined to books, but books of the right kind are the best single aid to education.

4. Modern methods of teaching demand the comparative use of books, not reliance upon a single text-book. Modern courses of study emphasize this tendency by their lists of references to material for the use of teacher and student. Children now study a subject, not a single text-book or series of text-books.

5. The Library is the only continuation school really practicable for all the people, at all times, and for all subjects; and like any other institution, its value increases in proportion to the intelligence shown in its use.

A knowledge of books comes more readily to some people than to others, but training along this line will do much for even unpromising people who, without training, would be practically helpless. The need for this training was shown very clearly some decades ago when the method of teaching changed rather generally from text-book mastery to more rational methods.

If, then, the Library and the school have so much in common, and if both recognize in their precept and their practice the importance of books, it seems obvious that some instruction along this line should be given in the High School and indeed in the higher forms of the Public School. Again, if pupils are to be taught to use books, it seems equally obvious that their intelligent use must first be learned by the teacher. This means that there should be a "library course" in our Faculties of Education and Normal Schools.

Further, if the need of such a course is recognized, there are several general methods by which the general results may be obtained:—

1. By experiment. This is the customary way. "We learn to do by doing" is a pedagogical maxim that has not yet lost its charm. Teachers are still assuming that pupils will learn to use books well by using them without direction. This method,

or lack of method, is as uncertain in its results as it is costly in time and effort.

2. By sending pupils to the nearest library for material not found in the text-books and assuming that the librarian will give the required assistance. This does not always ensure good results. Every school faculty of any considerable size should have at least one member of its staff who is able and has the leisure to show the pupils something of the best methods of using books. At any rate, each teacher should be required to know how to use the books connected with his own department even if he does little or nothing in the way of general library work.

3. A third method remains, viz., systematic training in regularly scheduled classes in the schools. This is the plan usually adopted for other subjects, and why should not this method be followed in training school-librarians?

It is well to remember that, as far as its place in the school is concerned, the library must always be an auxiliary, not an independent affair—an auxiliary of the greatest importance which aids all courses but interferes with none. This is the aim of those American schools in which the use of the library is being successfully taught. It has been demonstrated that such library courses are in reality time-savers and not time-consumers. A good library course is not an independent affair but something which, even in its own lessons and problems, can be made to bear directly upon the daily work of the school. As this becomes more and more evident, there should not be much trouble in getting periods in which to teach the use of the library.

In Kansas City the Public Library is supported by and is under the control of the Board of Education. The Library is in the High School building, with a main outside entrance distinct from the school entrance, but with a door leading to the main hall of the school proper. The library is used by the students from 8.30 a.m. to 12.30 p.m. in periods of 45 minutes by classes of 50 pupils each. Thus 250 pupils use the library daily, doing the work required, as well as acquiring a knowledge of how to use a library.

This specific school service does not interfere with the use of the library by the general public, as it has been found by investigation that small demand is made for books by the general

public during the forenoon hours. Similar branch libraries have since been installed in a number of new Grade Schools, and, as these are being used as social centres, the libraries are well patronized by the public.

If library courses are to be established in the training schools, their purpose should be not only to teach the use of books, but to teach, in addition, the principles of their proper selection and enough of the essentials of library technique to enable the teacher to administer successfully a small school library and to understand the general methods used in larger libraries. This course should be not only for individual improvement but designed also to give skill in teaching others how to use the library. *No teacher should be authorised to teach until he has been given specific training that will enable him to direct wisely the reading habits of his pupils.*

Such training should include the following:—

Principles and aids in book selection.

Problems on reference books including the preparation of reading lists and lists of references.

The use and importance of book reviews.

The study of types of the best children's books.

The literature of knowledge, including books on science, history, geography, etc.

Guides to the choice of books for individual reading.

How to make the resources of the school library and the public library available to pupils both while at school and after they leave school.

Reading suitable for the different grades.

Comparisons and relative merits of magazines and other periodicals.

The material that may be obtained from government departments, educational institutions, manufacturing concerns, railway and steamboat lines, etc.

The ordering, classification and cataloguing of books.

The preparation and care of material other than books, i.e., pamphlets, public documents, clippings, pictures, etc.

Keeping library records, repair of books, etc.

The proper relations of school and public library certainly must be taught if any closer and more general co-operation of



the two is to be brought about. Both teacher and librarian must be parties to such co-operation and each needs to know the point of view of the other.

It might facilitate this co-operation if our public libraries were placed under control of our Boards of Education, and if the librarians in charge were trained educationists holding a certificate of qualification from a properly constituted library training school.

In American Normal Schools that have library courses, there is no general agreement as to the amount of time which is to be devoted to library instruction. In a summary compiled in 1909 by the Newark Free Public Library, the amount of time devoted to such work in 28 Normal Schools varied from 1 to 60 lessons. Most of the schools which are recognized as leaders in this work gave about 20 lessons. There is reason to believe that the general situation has not materially changed except that the shorter courses are being lengthened and that more Normal schools are offering courses in library methods. The limited number of lessons in even the good courses makes directness and emphasis on essentials imperative. If all Normal School students had been taught to use books before entering the Normal School, considerable time which is now used in teaching things which should already be known could be devoted to the method and pedagogic sides of the subject.

More and more, Normal Schools of the United States are putting instruction in library methods on a par with other subjects of the course. This is only what all ought to do. No Normal School is doing its work well if it sends its students out unskilled in the use of the tools of their own trade. A course in the use of books and libraries is no more of a luxury in the general training of any teacher than a gas range and a kitchen sink are luxuries in the equipment of a domestic science department; or planes and chisels in a manual training room.

In the meantime, a simple degree of correlation between the Public Schools and the Public Library, in urban centres, might be advantageously carried out even under present conditions. My plan would be simply to have a selection of books made from the library shelves by the librarian in consultation with the Principal and staff of the Public School. A selection sufficient in

quantity and suitable in quality should be made for each room or department.

In carrying out this scheme the teacher of each department would become a sort of assistant-librarian of the Public Library, and would be expected to enforce rules and regulations similar to those governing the Public Library. At the end of the school year, all books should be accounted for and returned to the Public Library and a fresh selection made before the opening of the fall term. The Principal and his staff should be consulted when new books are being selected for the Library in order to ensure a supply suitable for the various grades in the Public School. For this privilege, the Board of Education would be expected to make an annual grant to the funds of the Public Library.

In this connection, I would recommend that the Regulations of the Public Library be modified so that no pupil enrolled in the Public School be allowed to get books directly from the Public Library, unless in exceptional cases, when a written order from the parent and countersigned by the Public School Principal, might be required. This Regulation should not, however, apply to the Midsummer, Christmas and Easter holidays. All pupils should continue to have access to the library reading-room and to the reference library as at present.

The advantages of such a scheme are obvious:—

1. It would, I believe, be generally acceptable to both parents and teachers, and also to the public library authorities.

2. It would tend to ensure a proper and most needed supervision over both the quality and quantity of pupils' reading, and would secure a better co-ordination between school studies and outside reading—a matter that is hard to control under present conditions.

3. Under the guidance and stimulation of the teacher, it would tend, more than at present, to create a reading habit and the taste for a better class of books. It is lamentable that so many of our young people are leaving school without having acquired such a habit.

4. It would widely extend the usefulness of the Public Library by bringing it into closer contact with a greater number of families than is at present the case.

The work of the school should consciously make provision for continuing the child's education after school days are over. Much may be accomplished along this line by fostering the reading of good literature while the child is still at school.

Some time ago the Department attempted to link up more closely the School and the Library by giving teachers greater representation on the library boards. Unfortunately, this was blocked by other influences. In my opinion the Department's intention would be realized by some such scheme as outlined here.

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*GEORGE PAXTON YOUNG, INSPECTOR OF GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.*

W. E. MACPHERSON, B.A., LL.B.

The history of the Ontario High School falls naturally into three divisions, first the period of the Old Grammar School from 1807 to 1847, with the outstanding figure of Dr. Strachan; second, a period of transition, a period of storm and stress from 1847 to 1875, with the outstanding figure of Dr. Ryerson. And third, the period of the modern High School of the people, 1875 to 1916, the history of which has yet to be attempted.

Next to Ryerson himself the strongest single influence in this second and most striking period is that of George Paxton Young. Far into the third period, too, his influence persisted as Chairman of the Central Board of Examiners and trusted adviser of the Education Department until his death in 1889. In 1870 he was President of the Ontario Educational Association then known as the Ontario Teachers' Association. Mr. Hodgins says that the Honourable Mr. Crooks relied largely on his judgment. Sir George Ross bore testimony to his influence and spoke particularly of the value of his advice in revising the School Act and Regulations, in 1885.

To judge the extent of his influence in the earlier period we must note the vast difference between the Grammar Schools of 1845 or 1850, and the Ontario High School which twenty-five years later had taken its place. We may note during this period an entire change in the aim and purpose of secondary education in this Province, and we may watch in its birth and early development the policy of uniformity and centralization, which Inspector Young did so much to foster.

George Paxton Young was born in 1818 at Berwick-on-Tweed; the son of a Scottish Anti-Burgher Minister, and on his mother's side a grandson of the Rev. George Paxton, Professor of Divinity in an Anti-Burgher College. He was educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh, entered the ministry and began his work at Paisley. Shortly he removed to take charge of the pastorate of a congregation at Islington, London, England. In 1847, at the age of 28, he came to Canada. Three years later



he became minister of Knox Church, Hamilton, a position which he resigned in 1853 to become Professor in Knox College. In 1864 he gave up his post, and the same year he was appointed Inspector of Grammar Schools and Examiner of Grammar School Masters. For four years he gave himself wholly to the study of our school system with particular regard to secondary schools; but he inspected also Public and Separate Schools, and was indeed regarded by Dr. Ryerson rather as a School Commissioner than as an ordinary Inspector. He resigned in 1868 to take part in the preparatory work of Knox College and was the same year appointed Professor of Logic, Metaphysics, and Ethics in the University of Toronto. Students who came to the University of Toronto in the early 90's will remember what magnificent traditions had already gathered about his name; traditions of profound scholarship, of a genius for instruction, and of a large-hearted and unselfish devotion to his work as teacher. "It was literally true of him," said one of his co-workers, "that he might have filled the Chair of Mathematics, or that of Classics, or that of Oriental Languages as efficiently as he filled the Chair of Philosophy."

As a man he was singularly unassuming and had a strong and unaffected dislike of publicity. The intimate friends who came to his cottage on Bloor Street East were few. He lived unmarried. Miss Young and two nieces kept house for him.

When Dr. Ryerson became Superintendent of Education in 1844, indeed until 1850, the twenty-five grammar schools then in operation were in spirit and in organization much as they had been in the time of Dr. Strachan. They affected to stand entirely apart from the common schools and the general school system. They were preparatory schools for the universities and made their appeal mainly to that social class who in England would have sent their sons to private secondary schools. Trustees were appointed and teachers confirmed in their appointments by the Provincial Government. They were subject to no systematic inspection. Government grants and fees made them independent of popular support, many of them were still boarding schools, admitting only boys, and in charge of teachers largely clergymen of the Anglican and Presbyterian faith, who required no specific qualifications for appointment. There was no restraint on admission except the judgment of the principal. Pupils

of all ages and attainments were admitted. Though they were originally designed to be as the name implies, schools for the preparations of students in the Classics, many of them did nothing but common school work, and as late as 1849, the thirty-nine grammar schools matriculated in a year only eight students to the Provincial University. They were, in fact, a last relic of the system by which Governor Simcoe and the framers of the Constitutional Act of 1791 had endeavoured to transplant to the forests of Upper Canada the social and political system of the Old Land, with its established church, its hereditary nobility, its respect for landed property, and its class distinctions.

The Grammar School Act of 1839, which offered grants "not exceeding £100 per annum for the use and support of two other schools beside the one in the county town," opened the way for expansion and the numbers rose from twenty-five in 1844 to sixty-four in 1854. By this time it was quite evident that so far as curriculum was concerned they had quite lost their exclusive character as classical schools. Fifty-six per cent. of them received pupils who were unable to write. Not one pupil in six was studying Latin, and of these only about one in twenty was far enough advanced to read Cæsar and Virgil. These were, in fact, private schools maintained with Government aid by a few well-to-do and influential families in the locality. Under such circumstances it was inevitable that these schools, competing with and thereby injuring the neighbouring common schools, should challenge the attention of the Superintendent of Education. The story of this intervention has already been ably told by Dr. Putman in his work on Egerton Ryerson and need not here be repeated. We may pass at once to the definite attempt to grapple with the situation by the Consolidated Grammar School Act of 1853-5 which laid the foundations of the system as Dr. Young found it. The outstanding features of that Act were these: the appointment of trustees was transferred from the Provincial Governments to the county councils, thus emphasizing the idea of local responsibility; definite qualifications were required for principals: they must hold a university degree, or a certificate from the Board of Examiners appointed by the Council of Public Instruction, which was also to make regulations regarding the courses of study. Two hundred and fifty pounds was provided (1855) to pay inspectors, and systematic

inspection by the central authority had here its beginning and opened the way for all further reforms. An attempt to provide professional instruction for the masters was made by the grant (1855) of £1,000 per annum for the establishment of a short-lived model grammar school at Toronto (1858-63). So far as the financial support of the grammar school was concerned the grammar school fund was divided among the counties on the basis of population and the councils might, if they wished, levy municipal taxation for their support. Most of them, however, never gave a cent. In the interests of economy, provision was made for the union of grammar and common schools.

The new legislation speedily worked improvement. The regulations of the Council of Public Instruction provided for entrance examinations each term (4) for pupils in English studies and twice a year for pupils in classical studies. A regular programme of studies was issued for five grades in each of the eight departments of study. Lists of text-books were prescribed and provided for sale by the educational depository. Class teaching was prescribed and in 1855 the first high school inspectors, Thomas J. Robertson of the Normal School and the Rev. Wm. Ormiston, made a systematic inspection of the 65 grammar schools. They found already some improvement. The new Entrance Examination had already cut off 561 pupils. Nearly a third now were studying Latin. But for the most part the grammar schools were still merely the more respectable and advanced common schools of the town.

To raise the Grammar School to its proper rank was no easy task. The Inspectors reported from year to year that teachers did not keep to the programme, that in many cases parents desired their children to take only one or two studies. Rev. Wm. Ormiston reports (1857) that "in some of the county Grammar Schools females are admitted, and a few are studying the classics with great success." But the era of unrestricted local enterprise had resulted by 1858 in 75 schools, a third of which had less than ten classical pupils, twenty-five of which had not graduates for principals, and twenty-seven of which held classes in rented and temporary rooms or in bad and altogether unsuitable houses, sometimes rented and fitted up by the principal at his own expense; sometimes a room or two in the Public School, an old tavern, the second story of a business block, temperance hall, the



town court house and jail, an old printing office, a private house, the old Central Hotel building, sometimes in the master's private residence. The Rev. A. E. Miller thus describes the old Toronto Grammar School, 1854, "On the ground floor were the class rooms and the head master and his family lived in the upper story. There was an old box stove in the Principal's room, large enough to contain several five foot sticks of wood. On very cold days it was no uncommon thing for masters and pupils to gather round the stove. The desks were arranged around the room against the wainscoting so that the backs of the pupils were towards the master." The average salary of a head master was \$700, of an assistant \$400. Most of the schools employed, however, only one teacher (80 schools, 121 teachers). Mr. G. R. R. Cockburn, who reported on Eastern Ontario in 1858, paints a gloomy picture. More than half the schools are union schools, and generally union schools are merely common schools with five or six classical students appended to them to secure the Grammar School grant, £50 to £60. It was a fraud not uncommon for union boards to obtain a headmaster with a University degree or Grammar School certificates, and require him to do common school work so that the Board might be enabled to draw the double Government allowance and save local taxation. Not infrequently Common and Grammar School departments were taught by one master. "The desire of one or two parents to secure for their children a liberal education gives birth to a Grammar School. It soon becomes so sickly that it is saved from immediate death only by merging itself in the vitality of the Common School" (which could tax) and "at present few or no Grammar Schools in the eastern section exact the entrance examination and have carried out the programme prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction. The miserable pittance usually dealt out to a Grammar School master compels him to draw into his net all the pupils he possibly can. As a rule he depends entirely on the Government grant and fees which render the average income between \$600 and \$700." Hence arose constant change of masters and, therefore, of text-books. Generally no regular curriculum of studies was observed, but it was left entirely to the whim or fancy of the pupil or parent to determine what particular studies each boy would carry on. But the figures of 1860, 53 matriculants in Arts with 41 taking the Law Society



examinations and nine the surveyor's examination show that the Grammar Schools were more nearly fulfilling their supposed function.

The Inspectors, however, yearned for uniformity. In report after report they urge uniform compulsory text-books, compulsory courses, compulsory leaving examinations and special training of teachers. In 1862 the Rev. Wm. Ormiston, inspecting western schools, notes "as worthy of remark," that "many of the common school teachers attend these schools."

This is the scene on which Young entered in 1864, by which time the number of schools had risen to 108, though only 95 reported that year. He was, I may say, sole inspector. The general weaknesses in organization were fairly obvious. The schools, though controlled by the County Councils, were essentially local schools drawing by far the greater number of their pupils from the city, town, or village in which the school was situated. As a consequence their financial support had never been generous. Out of the \$90,000 spent for Grammar School purposes in 1860, \$45,000 was legislative grant and fund, \$16,000 was municipal grants and \$20,000 fees. Evidently it was necessary to increase local support and local responsibility. Inspector Young was not in favour of giving Grammar School boards the right to levy taxes as many of them asked; but he would require County Councils to furnish buildings and furniture and contribute a certain sum annually and thus limit the reckless creation of new schools "needless and contemptible and required by no popular demand." A second great Grammar School Act, that of 1864, was an attempt to carry this and other reforms into effect.

The main provisions of the Grammar School Improvement Act, 1865, were as follows:—

Cities were to be counties for Grammar School purposes.

County Councils were to appoint half the trustees in towns or incorporated villages.

Principals must be graduates.

Proper accommodation must be provided.

Grants were to be given on basis of attendance—boys only, who must be at least 10 in number, and who must take Latin or Greek.

Local sources must add half to grant.

Pupils were admitted subject to examination by the Inspector of Grammar Schools.

Trustees were partially elective.

Henceforth the Grammar School was to take its part as a stage in the educational ladder and was not to compete with the Common School. A regulation in the Council of Public Instruction stated that "after January 1st, 1866, no Grammar School shall be entitled to receive anything from the Grammar School Fund unless suitable accommodations are provided for it, and unless it shall have a daily average attendance of ten *pupils* studying Latin or Greek."

"None can be recognized as Grammar School pupils who are not *bona fide* pursuing the whole of the subjects in one of the courses of studies prescribed in the programme."

A further regulation which at once brought to a head the question of the legal status of girls attending High Schools stated that, "To afford every possible facility for learning French, girls may at the option of the Trustees be admitted to any Grammar School on passing the preliminary and final entrance examination required for the admission of boys. Girls thus admitted will take French (and not Latin or Greek) and the English subjects of the Classical course for boys, but they are not to be returned or recognized as pupils pursuing either of the prescribed programmes of studies for Grammar Schools." In spite of the regulation, whose legality was at once challenged, (for girls were *pupils*) most of the schools urged girls as well as boys into the Grammar School division and set them at a nominal study of Latin. To this principle of co-education in secondary schools both Young and Ryerson were decidedly opposed, though Young was prepared to admit that probably co-education was better for girls than no education at all.

The Act of 1865 was in many respects successful. Local initiative and responsibility were increased. Popular feeling against the Grammar Schools began to disappear when they ceased to be the preserve of the few. Accommodations rapidly improved. But the new system of paying grants on the basis of attendance presented a temptation to urge pupils into Grammar School grades that the most diligent effort of the inspector was hardly able to cope with, though Young, in his first examination seems to have rejected more than half of the entrants who had

been admitted. Yet his test was a mild one. It was confined entirely to English grammar and required only the parsing of such sentences as, "The mother loved her daughter dearly;" "John ran to school very quickly;" "She knew her lesson remarkably well." Under the circumstances it is not surprising that Young found practically no students taking the English course.

It was soon evident that so far as curriculum was concerned, the new Act was a failure. The tendency to union schools was increased rather than diminished (the one-half clause didn't reach them). The entrance regulations were inefficient. All the pupils of union schools, with the exception of those in most rudimentary stages of English, tended to be drawn into the Grammar School department, and here compulsory Latin offered a course utterly unfitted for the great majority. The result was the degradation of the Common Schools, for the possibility of a good English education was made virtually conditional on the study of Latin. To give the same grant for girls as for boys, as the High School teachers in convention so urgently demanded, would only make matters worse and would be decidedly unjust to the majority of Grammar Schools which did not admit girls (in 1867 Ryerson says upwards of 30 schools admitted girls) or those which had higher ideals than a maximum Government grant.

The solution Young finally advocated was one which was to revolutionize the aim and purpose of the Grammar School. "The time has come," he says, 1867 "for the organization of a different sort of school from either the Grammar School or the existing Common School." The idea of the classical school must give place to the High School of the people, laying stress on an advanced study of English grammar and literature and of physical science. "The establishment—either through a development of our Common School system, or through a modification of our Grammar School system, or partly in the one way and partly in the other—of High Schools in which the English language and literature and physical science should be taught on the plan described, and in which other branches should receive the attention to which they are entitled, would be one of the greatest services that could be rendered to the Province. It would be an immediate inestimable boon to thousands of families, and would be certain to lead ultimately to great social results.

Teachers and School Trustees, to whom I have made known my views, have almost invariably approved of them very warmly; and only two difficulties have been suggested, namely, that the Common Schools are not generally conducted in such a manner as to prepare pupils for entering on the work of the High Schools, and that the instructions given in the Normal School are not such as to qualify the teachers sent forth from that institution for taking charge of High Schools."

One difficulty remained; how was the Grammar School grant to be divided if compulsory Latin went overboard? His solution was one that did not endear him to the next generation of High School masters; more inspection and payment by results.

His successor, the Rev. J. G. McKenzie, added the weight of his authority to these suggestions and the third great Act, in 1871, provided for carrying them into effect. The Grammar School disappeared and its place was taken by the High School. Latin was no longer compulsory. Both boys and girls were admitted. French and German were added to the curriculum, though High Schools which had not sufficient funds might be exempted by the Council of Public Instruction. High School Boards could demand municipal support. Entrance boards were provided (Inspectors of Public Schools, Principals of High Schools, and Chairman of High School Boards). Inspectors of High Schools were to see that the regulations were duly observed. The minimum grant for High School was to be \$400. The tradition of the classical Grammar School for boys remained in the Collegiate Institutes which must have four masters and a daily average of sixty male pupils studying Latin or Greek. These Collegiate Institutes received a minimum grant of \$750. High Schools must have at least two teachers. Grants were to depend on efficiency.

It was left to later inspectors to wrestle with the problem of how payment by results was to be regulated. Succeeding Inspectors, Rev. J. G. MacKenzie and James A. McLellan, worked out schemes of classification along the line suggested by Professor Young but the opposition was too strong. At length the burden was thrown on the Intermediate examination where it remained for some ten years, when payment by results died a natural death.



The faith of Professor Young in uniformity and centralization as remedies for the educational evils he pointed out so clearly, is very evident in his last notable public utterance on our schools: his address as President of the Ontario Teachers' Association in 1871. "I was," he says, "at one time disposed to think that County Boards of Examiners might be dispensed with, and certificates of all classes, First, Second, and Third, granted by one Examining Body. This would secure uniformity as far as such a theory is possible; it would probably not involve much more expense than is entailed by the present system; and it would be objected to on the ground of centralization by those only who allow their ears to be filled with a popular cry, and do not consider that centralization, which separates Examiners from local partialities and suggestions, is, in such a matter, the very thing to be desired. But, after what I have learned of the number of applicants likely to come forward from year to year for Second and Third Class certificates, I do not see how a single small committee could overtake the work of reading all the papers that would be given in. I acquiesce, therefore, in the method of examining and classifying teachers now prescribed by law, as perhaps the best attainable in present circumstances.

The Examining Committee, appointed by the Council of Public Instruction, consists of a member of the Council, who is Chairman of the Committee, and of the two High School Inspectors. Besides a special examination for Certificates of Qualification for the office of Public School Inspector, the Committee has recently had to conduct, with the assistance of the Normal School masters, the examination of both divisions of the Normal School, and it is at present engaged with the general examination of candidates for First Class Certificates throughout the Province. . . . Although, as a member of the Council, I accepted these arrangements as suitable to the transition year through which the school system is passing, I think that in future it would be better if the Normal School masters had nothing whatever to do with the examination of candidates for Teachers' Certificates. There are, undoubtedly, some advantages in teachers having a share in the examination of their pupils, but these, in the present instance, are far more than outweighed by the imperative necessity which exists that no one set of applicants for a certificate of a particular class should be subjected to a

different ordeal from another, and also that no possible whisper of partiality on the part of a teacher to his own pupils should go abroad. This necessity is now more imperative than ever, inasmuch as both second and third class certificates have a greater value than formerly.

From these evils, the only remedy possible, *as far as I can see*, is to make the amount of the Government grants to the different High Schools dependent not on members alone, but on results likewise. To speak mathematically, what each school shall receive out of the public treasury should be a function of the two variable quantities, the number of pupils in attendance, and the character of the instruction imparted; but, in order that results might be taken into account, more than one Inspector was indispensable."

In these sentences he has indicated the tendencies that were to have so large an influence in the further development of the educational system in this Province.

To follow them in detail would take us much beyond the scope of the present address. Young's chief work for secondary education was done before 1871. He found the Grammar School in most cases weak, aimless, local institutions, the preserve of the few, without ambition or opportunity to do good work, answering no large public demand, awakening no enthusiasm. Largely under his guidance they were given a large public aim, a modern curriculum, a large degree of uniformity and centralized control, and a popular support that was full of hope for the future. He faced his problem boldly and fearlessly and attempted a large solution based on faith in human nature. In so doing he has helped to create for us problems that I am sure he would wish us to face as boldly and as hopefully.

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## TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT

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### *PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

E. A. DOOLITTLE, ORILLIA.

*To the Members and Representatives of the Trustee Department of the Ontario Educational Association.*—Permit me to assure you of my deep appreciation of the honour you have conferred upon me in electing me as your President for the past year, and indeed it affords me pleasure to extend to you a most hearty welcome to this our annual convention of the Association.

It is a pleasure to welcome and offer greetings to the older members, who for years have manifested such a deep interest and have worked to extend and promote our educational interests and institutions. And also to those of you who are with us for the first time—I trust you will be interested in all of our meetings and enjoy them fully and that they may result in profit and benefit to all of us.

While we meet together as representatives from the rural and urban districts, which necessarily demand many branches of work, and necessarily the branches of work are very varied and quite different in their general scope, yet the one aim of all of us is the consideration of suggestions and ideas that a more efficient system may be evolved for the help and advancement of our people.

In this Canada, our native land, with its great possibilities of development, there is no problem so great as our educational interests. It has been most truly stated by Mr. J. H. Putman, of Ottawa, "that many educational problems are as yet unsolved and that educational practice is constantly subject to revision. Every man who approaches an educational problem should approach it with an air of humility, an open mind, and a dauntless courage, with an air of humility because he is studying the greatest

problem of the universe—the proper development of a human soul—with an open mind because we cannot get even a glimpse of truth while we have on spectacles of prejudice, and with a dauntless courage because progress can only come from following whatever gleam of truth may flash upon us through the mists of prejudice, tradition and error. The parents and grandparents of the present adult generation got the best part of their education in the home and on the farm through what they did. So to-day children require more hand-work, and less book-work. They can best have their natural powers developed through action. The school gives too little scope for action and places too high a premium on doing what others do or doing what they are told to do—hence it is that whatever advance we make in raising the standard of our schools, colleges and universities, so proportionately, but far greater shown by results, will be the advancement in our agricultural work and wealth, in knowledge making possible the recovery from mother earth of our great mineral deposits, in the conserving and, if necessary, reforestry of our timber areas, in the development of our manufacturing and industrial interests, as yet in their infancy, but far greater than all of these in the moral instruction and character building as the chief end of a proper educational programme, and which will lead to a high moral and intellectual standard of us as a nation.”

In our meeting together in general convention once a year, I consider that occasionally there should be a summing up of the efforts of the past years, and consideration of some of the possible developments of the near future as they may pertain to our work. For a short time let us consider the advancement in general education as recorded for the last decade period, namely, from 1901 to 1911, for the Province of Ontario, according to Government reports. I desire to introduce this, as you will note later on, references will be made thereto.

In 1901 there were 89.77 per cent. of the population who could read and write, 1.47 per cent. who could read only, leaving 8.76 per cent. who could neither read nor write. In 1911, it is noticeable that the total percentage of those who could both read and write had increased to 93.17 per cent., while only .32 per cent. could read only and leaving 6.51 per cent. who could neither read nor write, showing a lowering of  $2\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. in this last class, and yet this 6.51 per cent. of our population of



2,523,274 in 1911 would mean 165,000 people. Quite a large number. While the gain in the ten years was noticeable, no doubt the next ten years to be recorded will show a corresponding gain in cutting down the percentage in this latter class.

Next, the number of schools in 1901 was 6,166, in 1911 6,693, about  $8\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. increase. The number of pupils in 1901 was 493,334, in 1911—520,255, an increase of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

The expenditure shows as follows: In 1901, \$5,448,422; in 1911, \$12,104,422, and in the last four years there has been considerable further increase. The immigration in 1901 was about 17,000, while it was 64,422 in 1912. The population of the Province increased in the ten years from 2,182,947 to 2,523,274, or 340,327, about 16 per cent.

The percentage of the rural population was 47.35, while that of the urban was 52.65. The origin of the people is given as follows: English, 76.37 per cent.; French, 8.02 per cent.; German, 7.63 per cent.; other European, 3.82 per cent., and various 4.16 per cent. And in religion, Protestant, 74.73 per cent.; Roman Catholic, 19.22 per cent., and others 6.05 per cent.

Now, we must note from the above, that although the number of pupils only increased  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., there was an increase of  $8\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. in the total number of schools. While this did not mean very much change in the older districts, except as to the Department regulations lowering the number of pupils permissible to be taught by each teacher, requiring in some instances added accommodation—there has been evidently the recognition of the requirement for more schools in proportion to the population.

It has also to be noted that the increase in immigration is very great as between the two periods. This increase will undoubtedly continue and at the present time demands, as well as in the near future will demand, a great amount of attention. It is perhaps almost impossible for a certain class of the adults of foreign nations, who come to us, to acquire more than a slight acquaintance with our language, but as to their children, that is different. While they form themselves in colonies in some districts, a special effort should be made in those cases that schools should be established and that they should be required to learn

the English language. This may not be an easy proposition, but it should not be overlooked.

The question of expenditure shows up very marked, namely, an increase of 122 per cent. Surely with only an increase in schools of  $8\frac{3}{4}$  per cent.; of pupils,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and then for an increase in expenditure of 122 per cent., we should have very marked results. Have we?

Mention has been made of the origin of the people of the Province as enumerated in 1911, namely, French, 8.02 per cent.; German, 7.63 per cent.; other European, and various 7.98 per cent., and the English, 76.37 per cent.

There has been this year and for some time past, in a few certain districts, a difficult problem which the Educational Department have had considerable trouble with. I refer to the friction existing over the Bilingual question, when as you will note, what a small relative percentage of the population the French are (even the Germans are almost as numerous). When also we consider the further reason or claim which has been advanced by those who have kept up the agitation in this matter, namely, because they are of French origin they should have the French language taught in their schools, even to the preference being given to their own language over the English—then, truly, I think it is time that we should give this most careful attention.

The teaching of the French language in our schools was given as a privilege; when they come to claim it as a right, it is quite a different matter. Of course, when it became incorporated in the Statutes it became a law and upon a proper interpretation of the law so the matter must be decided. The view lately reported as taken by Hon. Geo. P. Graham in a speech delivered by him at Quebec, when he urged the view that conciliation was the only foundation on which a satisfactory solution of this troublesome problem could be based, we could surely commend such a course. Unfortunately the French-speaking citizens of Ottawa have now placed the matter in the Courts, and the case is on its way to the Privy Council and a decision will ultimately be arrived at as to the power of the Legislature of Ontario to increase or decrease at its will the amount of instruction given in French in the schools of the Province.

Also, very lately when the House was in session, some interesting points came out in a discussion on this question. Some of

the intricacies of the subject were handled by the Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, who was acting Minister of Education during Dr. Pyne's absence in England, and as a result we have some interpretations of Bilingual regulations. As one or two of them may be of special interest to us, if not now, may be in the near future, I will repeat here what was reported. As an interpretation of clause 4 of regulation 17: It was asked that supposing a new school was required in a district where there were an equal number of French-speaking pupils, and English-speaking pupils—under the present law, would it be legal to teach French in that school? In answer it was stated that as the regulation says, where the French now prevail it may be taught, so the position described would come under that regulation and it would be legal to have French taught in that school. When questioned very closely as to whether in such a situation as mentioned above, can it be said that the French language prevails so as to bring it within regulation No. 15? The answer was, I have not the regulation, but I think it somewhat depends upon the report of the Inspector. Mr. Ferguson continued by saying, "The idea of this regulation, I may say in a word, is this, that there must be some independent authority to decide these matters, and the Department feels the best authority to decide whether regulations should apply and how they should be worked out, and the elasticity given to the regulation would be in the hands of some official whose duty it is to see to that kind of thing, who is not biased in the matter at all, and has no reason for treating harshly anybody and has at heart the educational interests of everybody. It is left to that official to decide how the school should be operated." He said further, "We assume that where a French community grows on to an English community in the Province of Ontario, that the English language is the prevailing language. When French prevail they operate under regulation 15. If it were possible to plant an entire French community somewhere isolated by itself, the word "hitherto" would apply and then it would be designated, and come under regulation 17. The idea is, that as rapidly as they can acquire it they can get a knowledge of English from the teacher, because they have not the opportunity in their surroundings and everyday life. Where there is an entire French community, the only way to learn the language is from the teachers, and we require them to devote part of the time each

day to the knowledge of English." Since the above recorded discussion occurred in the House, a petition addressed to the Duke of Connaught was transmitted by the President of the Association of French Education of Ontario, to the Secretary of State, praying the Governor-General in Council to take the necessary steps to have the Ontario Bilingual School Act disavowed by Parliament. This move from the Roman Catholic episcopacy is considered to be, up to the present, the most important in this matter.

If this is not granted, we can sincerely hope and trust that such an official, as mentioned before, will at once be found and appointed, no matter how difficult such a selection may be, because it is evident that the success of the fulfilling of the regulations depends on such an official.

The question was asked as to the number of these schools without properly qualified teachers. Dr. Pyne said there were about ninety English-French schools unable to secure qualified teachers because there were no teachers available. I think in this last reply the one great difficulty to a solution of the trouble exists—trained and efficient teachers in both English and French who can enter the Public Schools and teach the English language as the language of this country, at the same time giving instruction in French reading, grammar and composition as is arranged for. Do you think we can train linguists to work on a salary of from \$500 to \$600 per year?

This matter must be set right and we can hope that a full and complete solution of the problem will be arrived at without injustice to any, but without sacrificing any of those principles which we as a British people claim as ours by inheritance.

I mentioned the proportion of our population—rural and urban—very near equal in percentage. Of course since 1911 there has been some change, but possibly not very great. It might not be true to state that the different problems of each were of equal importance, because they are so different in many respects, but it is true that they are all important, some possibly more so than others.

Both the Provincial and Dominion Governments have devoted a great deal of attention to the question of the educational interests as mentioned, and yet in looking back over the past years, surely we cannot congratulate ourselves that the progress towards



the solution of some of the problems have been any too rapid; in fact, possibly not keeping up with the advancement of our country in many other respects. Are we as a representative body active enough in considering these matters generally? If not, can we put ourselves in such a position so as to be more successful in advancing to the notice of Educational Department those ideas that appeal to us as being desirable? I believe we can and should through the means of our Executive or Legislative Committee.

There are a few problems which I would like to mention. First, in connection with our rural interests. We all recognize what a prominent place the agriculturists take in this great country. It cannot be gainsaid that the great source of our wealth is the products as developed by our husbandmen. The Department have in the last few years introduced into the schools studies especially pertaining to agriculture, and also provided for separate classes in the subject to interest and help the rural sections. This move will surely prove to be very helpful and can be further extended, but there are two or three matters which might receive your earnest consideration, namely:—

(1) The Truancy Act as it applies in rural districts. Since the Act was amended in 1914, there has not been sufficient time elapse to receive many reports as to how satisfactory or otherwise the changes have proven to be. The general propisions for the working out of this necessary Act as amended would appear to be satisfactory except for one principal trouble, that is where they have had trouble, and this has in nearly every instance occurred in a rural district. It is in connection with the provision for the appointment of the truant officer. This falls upon the duty of the municipality and as a result of course it is a local man. The truant officer in the discharge of his duties has sometimes to compel attendance of the children of his neighbours. This may prove to be far from a pleasant duty because possibly his neighbour does not appreciate his efforts, in fact may quite bitterly resent them. Would it not be possible to provide for the appointment of a man outside of the district—a stranger who could pay regular visits and who when he had occasion to enforce the law, would not feel so much the animus that might be engendered thereby? This I consider would be a desirable change and possibly relieve trying situations which sometimes occur.

(2) The consolidation of public schools in many districts. As will be noted by reference to our programme, arrangement has been made whereby this subject, I expect, will be very fully and exhaustively treated; it is, therefore, quite unnecessary on my part to mention here the advantages and favourable features in connection therewith, but I would like to state that after considering the subject and reading the reports of the establishment of them in several States I am satisfied in most instances a very marked advancement could be made over present conditions and in the results obtained.

(3) The question of securing permanent teachers. When we cast a retrospective look upon ourselves as trustees, and consider how often we may have considered as the great question involved in hiring a teacher—what the least salary we could pay, often ignoring other valuable considerations, is it surprising that so few men are to be found in the profession and even out of the few that are there—that but a few remain? Our young ladies cannot be expected to look upon the work as a life work, except they carry their experience in the home, and hence we have many changes which in this great work is not for its greatest efficiency and success. To have young men take up this work, the salary question must be a great factor, it must be made worth his while. The school might be made a meeting place for many pleasant social functions, when the teacher might reasonably be expected to take an active part, and help in the social circle. He should also have a home with a reasonable area of land, and in the cultivation of the latter give a practical illustration of agricultural work. This provision has been made in other countries, and in one of our Western Provinces. And there should be a more adequate provision made for old age. You may call it insurance or superannuation allowance, but there must be something. For some time past an earnest effort has been made to have the Government pass a Bill respecting the superannuation of teachers and inspectors. It was given a first reading on April 2nd, 1915. Upon consideration of it, several changes have been proposed, this year it is expected that it will be considered finally. It would at least be a good commencement—changes that might be found desirable could be incorporated later.

Second, as for the town and city interests, there is a deeply interesting problem, the development of which is more marked each

year that passes and will continue to be so. The passing of the Industrial Education Act of 1911 ushered in what is certain to prove the greatest factor in the evolution of our manufactories and industries. The Government in introducing and making provision for industrial training and technical education have greatly enlarged and extended the possibilities of many students to make an early start on the road to success in life.

Vocational training is now so fully recognized as being a necessary part of our educational system that it is unnecessary to discuss the question here. Through the very kind courtesy of the management, we are holding our present meetings in a Technical School building which is one of the largest and very best equipped on this continent, and we know our neighbours to the south of us are not slow in this matter. We expect to have the opportunity of making a personal inspection of this splendid Technical School, when I am satisfied each one of us will by personal observation receive impressions which will be far more lasting than anything which I might hope to mention on the subject. While the City of Toronto has made such a splendid provision in this respect, and students from different parts of the Province, recognizing the great advantages offered, have already taken up their studies here, yet there is no reason why all of our larger towns and smaller cities should not be active in this matter. It is true some of them have made a commencement by starting classes, and in a few cases schools, but many others have not. With the material help which the Educational Department is willing to provide and the experience already gained from the work of schools which have been instituted in other countries for many years past, we cannot make any mistake in giving encouragement to this branch of the work.

This matter was first brought up in the Federal Parliament in 1909. A Commission was appointed known as the Canadian Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education, and this Commission has handed in its report, as submitted by the Chairman, Dr. J. W. Robertson. The Government has declared that though thoroughly convinced of the desirability of Technical Education, yet it is not prepared to accept the recommendations of the Commission which it considers might prove impracticable and unsatisfactory. Such was the statement made by the Hon. T. W. Crothers, Minister of Labour, at a session of

the House about the end of March last. The question might be raised that the Federal Parliament had no jurisdiction over education, but the Dominion, however, has established Military and Naval colleges, has spent money for the dissemination of knowledge regarding the Metric system of weights and measures and on Agricultural training, and has granted subsidies to Universities. That being so, the Dominion Parliament could surely make grants for technical education.

The changes in the world's trade which the present war will bring about are such, that our manufacturers and industrial workers should be in the best possible position to capture part of that trade. At the close of the war the country will be called upon to absorb many thousands of men into its industrial life, and we should be in a position to offer them opportunity for study and work. It is a satisfaction to note that in connection with one branch of the question, the training of returned incapacitated soldiers to help support themselves, arrangements are being provided.

There is no question but that Technical Education is absolutely essential to the industrial advancement of our country. All the aid that reasonably at this time can be placed at the disposal of the Provinces should be provided. It is well known with what thoroughness Dr. Robertson always treats anything with which he has to do, and it was not to be expected that in this matter, to the consideration of which he has given years of his life, that the report would be otherwise than it is, namely, very full, complete and exhaustive. It is to be hoped that while the scheme as outlined by the Commission has been considered too elaborate and even might prove impracticable and unsatisfactory, yet the Government should not because of that fail to take action, and that at once.

We are at the present time as a people and part of the British Empire most intensely interested in the present great war which is rocking the whole world and locking many of the nations in a life and death struggle. With what eagerness news is sought each and every day of anything pertaining to the war. When we know, as now it is fully known, what are the real intentions of our enemies, it does not seem possible to me that there can be even one loyal and true citizen of this country who will continue to look with indifference or even apparent indifference at



the outcome. Is it possible, that because we have not actually been subject to attack, thanks only to the great defensive power of the British Navy and the quick and active part taken by the immense army which Great Britain has placed on the battle-fields of Europe; I repeat is it because of this, that we, resting here in comparative security and too often at our ease, fail in any way to take our part? I trust not. We most confidently look forward to the time when our armies will have won gloriously and a firm and abiding peace declared. Following this, the coming years will be a period of reconstruction. Many great changes will be in evidence. Then we as trustees associated with the teachers connected with a great national proposition should be a strong organization, looking forward and if possible making provision for some of the changes which are sure to follow.

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## THE HYGIENE OF THE SUBNORMAL CHILD.

(Auxiliary Classes.)

HELEN MACMURCHY, M.D., TORONTO.

The health of our children is recognized more definitely every year as an educational question. From general references to health matters in the Education Acts and the official regulations we advanced to the legislation under which Boards of Trustees are empowered to provide and pay for medical and dental inspection of schools, and we have now the Auxiliary Classes Act. Under this Act the following classes may be recognized:—

1. *Advancement Classes* for children who are far above the average both mentally and physically.

2. *Promotion Classes* for children who are backward on account of some remediable cause, but are not mentally defective.

3. *English Classes* for children or adults of recently immigrated non-English-speaking families who need special instruction in English for a short time.

4. *Disciplinary Classes* and Parental Schools for those children whose conduct, home conditions or environment render instruction in such classes necessary.

5. *Open Air Schools or Classes* for delicate, anaemic or under-nourished children, held in forests or parks or in school-rooms one side of which at least is open to the sun and outer air.

6. *Hospital Classes* for patients in Children's Hospitals or Wards, or Homes for Incurable Children.

7. *Sanatorium Classes* for tuberculous children or children in a Preventorium.

8. *Ambulance Classes* for disabled children.

9. *Special Classes* for children who suffer much from stammering, stuttering, and other speech defects.

10. *Myopia Classes* for children whose sight prevents them from making satisfactory progress even when they are provided with proper glasses and placed in the front seat, or whose sight would be further impaired by using the ordinary text-books and other means of instruction.

11. *Lip-reading Classes* for children whose hearing is so poor that even when placed in the front seat they cannot hear enough to make satisfactory progress, or who may require to learn lip-reading on account of the danger that they may become absolutely deaf.

12. *Training Classes* for children who are mentally defective but who can be educated or trained, and whose mental age is not less than the legal school age.

13. *Special Classes* for epileptic children.

14. *Institution Classes*, Public and Separate School classes held in children's homes, children's shelters, orphanages and industrial schools. There are many children in such institutions who would otherwise be eligible for admission to one or other of the above-mentioned classes.

We all know that a perfect child, in mind and body, is almost as rare as a perfect man or woman. In the definition of advancement classes probably the words we should emphasize are "*and physically.*" We need leaders and we lose some of them because no one had a care for the vulnerable point. The modern Thetis still holds her Achilles by the heel when she dips him in the Styx. So the modern Achilles still has a sub-normal heel. Which of us has not known some useful public man who, because of deafness or poor sight or general debility, has had to limit his activities and retire too soon from public service? More often we have known men and women too, who have had the ability for leadership, but have lacked the driving power, the staying power, the dynamic force which alone can see things through and get something done. It is the question of getting up steam and keeping up steam, and it is very seldom that people can do that unless they have a good body as well as a good mind. So it is worth while, in dealing with our gifted children—children who are going to come to something, if they live, to have a care of any weak point that there may be and see that the heel of Achilles is dipped in the Styx. And here let me make a plea for the special interest and attention of the teachers, trustees and inspectors from the rural districts of the Province. On them, more than on the city districts, depends the character of the people of the Province. Do not say, "Our teachers cannot have Advancement Classes." You can have advancement work with one or two pupils out of the fifty or one hundred and that is

equal to the work done in a school of 1,500 pupils who may have Advancement Classes with 15 to 30 pupils enrolled. It is a wonderful interest and privilege to give Mary who really wrote one or two pretty phrases in her last composition a copy of that great sonnet by Rupert Brooke to memorize—Rupert Brooke who gave his life for the Great Cause, and for us whose fate hangs upon and is the fate of the Great Cause, a year ago last Sunday, April 23rd, 1915. The *Times* says that is the greatest sonnet written since Shakespeare, who died three hundred years ago last Sunday—and that sonnet of Rupert Brooke's was written while Mary was at school. Individual advancement of gifted pupils is quite compatible with justice to the whole class. Every child who has a gift can have a chance at another problem or another drawing or another history book or another seed-plot or something else that will awaken interest and stimulate development.

It is evident that to deal with the question of Child Hygiene and especially the hygiene of the sub-normal child we need medical inspection of schools. Without the aid of the school doctor and the school nurse, it is hard to see how any auxiliary class could be successfully established and effectually carried on. Perhaps that applies less to the Advancement Classes of which we have just been speaking than to other types of Auxiliary Classes, and yet it does apply, and very truly, to an Advancement Class. Signs that naturally, rightly enough, mean nothing to the teacher, mean everything to the doctor, and the assistance of the School Medical Inspector is invaluable in Advancement Class work. Nothing should be neglected. For example, the care of the teeth is very important.

In the second type, Promotion Classes for Backward Children, we can hardly do anything until the doctor has answered the question, "Can you tell me why John does not get on at school?" In what per cent. of backward children will the answer of the doctor be, "No, I don't know?" Not more than 50 per cent.—perhaps not more than 25 per cent. The doctor can nearly always help us in the hygiene of these sub-normal children who should go into Promotion Classes. There are sometimes poor home conditions, there are such things as idleness and laziness and truancy and the undesirable consequences of the children bringing up the parents instead of the parents bringing up the children.



But these are not the only reasons of backwardness in school. It is not always the fault either of the child or of the parent, and in the week when we celebrate the first anniversary of the Battle of Langemarek and St. Julien and the second Battle of Ypres I think we are all not so ready to find fault as to ask what more we can do for the children of our heroes who fought there, and for the next generation who must take the places of the men who died there for the Empire and for Canada, in the cause of justice, righteousness and truth.

If John is not getting on—if Mary is not getting on—we must find out why.

#### WHAT IS THE CAUSE?

##### *First Group.*

The three commonest causes are:—

1. Impaired sight.
2. Impaired hearing.
3. Abnormal throat conditions.

##### *Second Group.*

The next three commonest are:—

1. Poor nutrition from various causes.
2. Lack of sleep.
3. Repeated illness of a transmissible character.

##### *Third Group.*

1. Social or psychological causes. The psychology of childhood is just beginning to be understood.

2. Psychiatric causes. The insanities of childhood.

3. Mental defect. Many children are backward. We must find out how many. Comparatively very few are mentally defective. But these few make a great difference.

The Promotion Class then is a sort of clearing-house, and improving the health of the pupils is indispensable to its success. This cannot be done without the help of the Principal, the teacher, who should be in the confidence of everybody, the School Medical Inspector, the school nurse and the parents.

One hardly needs to point out how important the physical condition and hygiene of the child is in the other classes enumerated.

The children of recent immigrants, on the whole, are usually found to need medical attention more than Canadian-born children.

Disciplinary Classes are full of children who need diagnosis as much as or more than they need discipline.

Children are sent to Open Air Classes simply because their health is not of the best.

In Hospital and Sanatorium and Ambulance Classes the doctor and the teacher must constantly work as comrades.

The children in Speech Classes always need special medical and social supervision.

Myopia Classes are dangerous without medical direction.

There are a great many deaf children in our schools to-day whose deafness has not been recognized, or if recognized, little or nothing is done, to prevent or remedy or remove this great handicap though we could easily do it.

We should do more and do it sooner.

What should be done? Everything to prevent scarlet fever, diphtheria and measles and everything to make the throat normal and everything to prevent and cure running ears. Educate the public.

As to classes in orphanages, industrial schools and other institutions the physical condition of these children needs constant and unremitting attention. They should be prepared as soon as possible for family life, unless they are mentally-defective. If they are mentally-defective they should be prepared for life in a Training School and Industrial Farm Colony on the cottage plan and should be placed there as soon as the diagnosis can be made *with certainty*, although, of course, they should be re-examined from time to time.

Training Classes for mentally-defective children in our Public and Separate Schools are places where there is a great opportunity for hygienic work. These children have, on the average, four or five times as many physical defects as normal children and their vital resistance is always poor. Besides, the admission to these classes and the diagnosis of mental defect should always be in the hands of a legally qualified medical practitioner with

special knowledge of mental defect, with good judgment and with as much knowledge of school work as possible.

Finally, are we making any progress in this matter? We have three Auxiliary Classes for mentally-defective children in the Province; one at Hamilton, opened in 1913 and two in Ottawa opened in 1914. This is only a small beginning, but it is a beginning, and we look to you to Carry On.

It is probable that at least from one to two per cent. of the children attending our Elementary Schools in Ontario are more or less mentally-defective. This is a very serious state of affairs.

The whole question of mental defect as a problem of national welfare is probably the most important problem we have to face and the place we have to begin the solution of that problem is in our Public and Separate Schools. Children who never can be citizens, who never can care for themselves, who are a great danger to the community, must not be allowed to leave our schools and go out to be centres of vice and immorality. They are that now in some cases *in* our schools—*before* they have left our schools at all. They must not be allowed to leave our schools to commit crimes from petty larceny to arson and manslaughter, as they now do, sometimes *before* they leave school. They must not be allowed to leave our schools and go out to be parents, as they now do, thus defiling the stream of national life, and debasing the glory of the national character. They are perpetual children and therefore they must have life-long care. And the beginning of this work must be done by us in the schools.

First, we must find the feeble-minded children.

Second, we must make the Training Class preparatory to the Residential Training School of the Industrial Farm Colony type on the cottage plan where mental defectives are made happy and useful with the minimum of expense and with no danger to the coming generation.

Public opinion is undergoing that great change in thought and feeling about this matter, which always precedes action.

"There never has been a time, when interest, patriotism, and honour alike may more justly be pleaded in support of a generous endeavour to remedy the deficiencies of our educational system. With the unexampled destruction of life and property entailed by the war, there will come an unexampled call to make the most of the brains and hands of the coming generation, whose task

it will be to replace the loss. These are business considerations, but there lies against the nation a debt of honour, which it has no better opportunity of repaying than just here. The working classes at least, equally with others, have stood between this country and destruction; and it is the very least the country can do to see that a more generous share of the civilization for which it stands shall fall to the lot of their children."—*Professor Muirhead. Birmingham University.*

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*SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.*

HENRY SIMPSON, ARCHITECT, TORONTO.

*Ladies and Gentlemen,*—I consider it an honour and a great privilege to be asked to read to you my paper on school planning. I have taken it for granted that the side of this great question that would be of the greatest interest to the greatest number of this assembly is that of the rural school. Let me say here that it is a pity there are not meetings of this kind held more frequently and at which nearly every school board in the Province would be represented, for what is of greater importance to the welfare of our country than the education of her children. In fact, it is everything, for with the proper education every other good will follow. Among the greatest needs of the rural schools of Canada to-day is that of better buildings. Most of the older houses are either cheap, ugly, uncomfortable, insanitary, badly ventilated, poorly heated, or improperly lighted with no conveniences for school work and with inadequate and filthy toilets or privies.

Even in the modern rural schools there are few built with any reference to architectural appearance, to the local needs, or the principles of sanitation and health requirements of growing children.

I have always held that in a building or room where any one has to study, it is best to be surrounded by objects pleasing to the eye, and that the loftier conditions of thought are only possible amid surroundings which gratify the senses.

Now children spend a great portion of their time in these schools, at an age when the most lasting impressions of either beauty or ugliness are made, unconsciously perhaps, but the impressions are made just the same.

It behooves everybody, therefore, on whom is placed the responsibility for these buildings, either school trustees or architects to see that the child's environments both as regards beauty, health, comfort and convenience are properly looked after.

The School Improvement League of the Southern States has taken for its motto "For our Schools, Health, Comfort and

Beauty," this might well be emulated by everybody who has to do with the planning and building of schools.

While in the *cities* of the Province, school planning has in the last eight or ten years improved very much, the reason for which is, of course, there are so many people concerned, some have travelled around and want something as good as in other cities, but in the rural school problem the interest is confined to a few, usually with little opportunity of gaining helpful information on the subject, and are satisfied if they make a bluff at conforming to the regulations of the Department of Education, which regulations are woefully lacking in effecting the conditions I refer to.

Coming now more closely to the planning of the school we will commence with the choice of site. A school of any public kind with insufficient space for games and general play is an injustice to childhood. The site should be high and dry, convenient as possible to the greatest number and properly enclosed, kept away from stagnant ponds, free from troublesome noises, unpleasant outlooks, air contamination, and protected as far as possible from unfavourable weather conditions. It is most important, too, that the ground be so selected as to be well and easily drained and kept thoroughly dry, otherwise the hygienic conditions of the school can never be kept right, no matter how much you may try to ventilate it. I don't mean that the best site is on the top of some hill, that would be equally undesirable from exposure to wind in severe weather. What you want is a fairly level lot that can be easily drained, and in Heaven's name large enough to give ample room for play, space suitable for certain agricultural experimental work, fruit growing and forestry, which subjects should come within the demands of the rural schools. Of course you should select a site where good water can be readily gotten.

### THE BUILDING.

If the children of rural birth are to be kept from moving to larger centres in such great numbers at such young ages as we know they now so often do, country life must be made more attractive, more joyous, more beautiful, have more means for recreation. The public school being the only institution in which

all are interested, is therefore, the only place where all these interests can be looked after properly. Where possible, school rooms should receive their light from the east or west. Windows placed in the north of a room admit direct sunlight for but a short part of the day, whereas windows in the south usually admit sunlight to an objectionable degree. By placing the windows in the east the room gets the early morning sun, and if placed in the west the afternoon sun. For hygienic reasons it is necessary that school rooms receive a certain amount of sunlight, which after all is the greatest germ destroyer, but this sunlight must not be admitted in any way to the discomfort of the scholar. For this reason it is generally conceded by those having the greatest experience that the light should only come from the left of the scholar and with a glass area of one-sixth of the floor space run well up to the ceiling and to within four feet of the floor. The windows should be grouped, by that I mean with as little wood as possible between them, so as to avoid as far as possible, the crossing shadows on the scholar's desk. These windows are better to have two shades, each pulling up and down, from near the centre. A fanlight over the windows, glazed with translucent glass is sometimes recommended for the reason that the shades may be drawn and the fanlight would not have to be blinded. These fanlights serve too as good summer ventilation.

As I have said before there has been a marked improvement in the designing of school buildings in some localities and no doubt this improvement will continue, but school planning is painfully defective in many localities.

Now our school buildings should be of such design and character as to impress the scholar with their beauty.

You can generally tell what the people are by their schools. It costs no more to design a building that violates none of the principles of design than it does to design one that would be an eyesore to the scholar. I do not emphasize the beauty of school architecture as being of prime importance but we all must admit that beauty is essentially useful.

I don't mean beauty such as is thought to exist in any old kind of filigree work. It is only the unskilled designer in whose hands too frequently the designing of rural schools is placed, that such meaningless adornment is used. A building can be designed to be beautiful with no other ornament than well pro-

portioned walls, roof, etc. One of the first essentials then to get a nice school building is to get a suitable design, and people with finer instincts or who desire their children to have their finer nature cultivated, want nice schools. While I can only outline to you some few suggestions for the planning of rural schools, it is *only* by way of suggestion and would advise you when considering building to go to some architect of good training and school experience for your plans before letting contracts.

### WORKSHOP.

I believe that the rural schools of the future will have more household science and manual training taught. There is no better training for the young mind than to *make* things, to have the hand responsive to the mind, to plan and create. I say this because I want to tell you further that I would suggest a good sized cheerful room in every rural school which boys and girls could use alternately for the various kinds of work, either manual training or domestic science, according to laboratory methods. The present war will revolutionize the commercial world. Germany's commercial success, which stood out so conspicuously before the war, has been owing largely to the technical educational system of that country. But after this war her commercial enterprizes will be divided up among other countries in proportion to their abilities to supply the demand. So let us give our children as much technical training as possible. The work-room provided for this purpose should not be too far from the teacher and well lighted, cheerful, warm and well ventilated, having range, work benches, sewing machine, etc., as the size of the school district might warrant. I think it is up to the Educational Association to outline a programme of technical training along laboratory lines that would be suitable for rural schools, not only for what the scholar will learn in this part of his school study, but for what it will prepare his mind to understand and assimilate after he leaves school. In England the lines of manual training in the schools are made to suit the lines of industries in the immediate neighbourhood. Don't put up an argument that what was good enough for you is good enough for your children. You wouldn't use the old fashioned flail the way I have seen them thrash years ago, not if you could get a



threshing machine and bear in mind, too, that you must be prepared to spend more money on your schools than in the past. The threshing machine costs more than the flail.

I speak thus to urge upon you the necessity of introducing the workshops in the rural schools, they are needed by the country and the children should have them.

### CLASS ROOM.

The class rooms will vary according to the needs of the community. A room 24 x 32 feet will accommodate about forty to forty-five scholars. The blackboard should extend the length of the wall behind the teacher and the wall opposite the windows. The blackboards in the graded class room should have a portion come closer to the floor to suit the smaller pupils. My experience has convinced me that slate blackboards are the cheapest in the end and by far the most serviceable, while composition boards are short lived. There should be a 3 in. or 4 in. trough at bottom of all blackboards for chalk, brushes, etc.

One of the most important things to consider in building rural schools is the floor; after the joists are carefully laid and bridged a plain matched underflooring should be laid diagonally across the joists, then covered tightly with asbestos building felt, well lapped and turned up against walls and behind the base, care being taken that every inch is made tight, then when the other trades are about completed a hardwood floor thoroughly kiln dried in 2 in. widths should be laid and driven up tight so as to insure absolute freedom from draughts at the floor. This precaution in a building one storey high is not so much for deafening as it is to prevent draughts on the floor and for hygienic reasons. It is very important that the hardwood floor finish should be well kiln dried and oiled so as to prevent wide opening up of the joints afterwards, forming very undesirable receptacles for dust. School floors should always be kept well oiled, well rubbed, but don't use the stuff called dust layer.

Walls of class rooms above blackboards and wainscoting should be lathed and plastered and painted some light grey or buff. It is not safe to lath and plaster ceilings on long spans of joists, for, owing to the vibration which long joists are usually subject. The ceiling would be better if made of stamped metal of simple design and painted.

Care should be taken to the swing of all inside doors and the entrance doors should always open out. Every school room should have cloak rooms, whether one large or two small ones would be preferable depending on the point of entry to the room. For instance, a teacher standing at point "A," Fig. 7, could keep an eye on every pupil as he or she passed through the cloak room, the boys using one side and the girls the other. I think the Government regulations call for two which I don't think in all cases is as good as one larger one.

The cloak room walls should be wainscotted 5 ft. high and the necessary strong hooks and the umbrella racks installed. The old fashioned way of hanging the children's clothing around the room was not only insanitary and unsightly, but it used up black-board space and should not be allowed under any circumstances.

#### LIBRARY.

The library could be used for a teachers' room or study for special pupils, or for the storage of maps, charts, books, as well as a technical reference library and containing books on the special *needs* of the community. In this room nice little touches of artistic taste and comfort may be introduced, all quietly suggesting an atmosphere of congenial and attractive study. Who can tell how far-reaching and deeply rooted and how beneficial to the community might be such a building. In some places, and I think wisely, they make the school library the reference library of the community. The reason why the residents in rural districts are not better "read" is the want of convenient books. So I think a school library suitable to the needs of the people in the neighbourhood would be desirable.

#### THE BASEMENT.

If the building is built on a site carefully chosen the basement can be kept sweet and dry and every school should have a basement. The walls extending only deep enough below the grade line to prevent the frost getting below them. A good precaution to take in clay soils is to excavate 12 in. all around the building from the bottom of the footings up to the grade line and fill in this space with coarse gravel or cinders, if more con-

venient, tamped down and putting loose jointed tile drains at bottom, connected into the main drain through a trap. These drains are very porous and should be laid with loose joints, covered with a piece of tarred paper to prevent the sand or other particles from entering the joint and eventually clogging the drain. It would be well also to plaster the outside of walls below the grade line with a five-eighth in. coat of cement mortar in proportions of two parts sand and one part Portland cement. An additional preventive of dampness in the basement would be to coat the outside cement plaster with a coat of hot pitch or carbolineum.

I find the best foundation for any building is made from good hard burnt bricks, of course in many places stone or concrete is more convenient. If brick be used, use light coloured or what to the trade is known as grey bricks for inside face, with neatly struck joints, this will make a fairly nice appearance inside the play rooms or other rooms that may be in the basement. If in stone the foundation should be plastered in cement on the inside of play rooms. All the basement ceiling should be plastered or covered with metal. The portion of ceiling over the furnace room should be made as incombustible as possible. The better way when joists are wooden, is to put on metal lath and a good heavy coat of plaster, then strap over with 2 in. strapping and again cover with metal lath and a good heavy coat of plaster, each coat of this plaster should be gauged with cement. The principal virtue in this treatment of ceiling over furnaces, is the air space between the first and second lathing.

Too much attention cannot be given to the cheerfulness of the play rooms. While all the basements must have a concrete floor, it would be well in the play room, etc., to build strips into and flush with the rough concrete, lay on a layer of tarred felt, or coat with hot pitch or both, then nail onto these strips a hard-wood floor driven up well. The playroom should have a seat along one end or side. The sexes should be separated in the play rooms, and if practicable the toilets should be off these play rooms, but only when they can be made absolutely sanitary and well drained, should they be placed inside. I would never recommend building a building without a basement or without a furnace.

## HEATING AND VENTILATION.

I think that no matter what system of heating may be adopted it is really necessary to bring cold fresh air from the outside to the bottom of the furnace, which air is heated and conveyed through flues to the school room, and entering same about six or eight feet above the floor, this flue to contain damper for regulating the heat. The face of opening into the room is covered with a register or expanded metal. The visible portion showing through the register being plastered, while the register itself should be trimmed similar to the windows.

To cause a circulation of warmed air equally to all parts of the room, other registers are placed in the wall at the floor, ducts or flues from these are connected directly or indirectly to the ventilating flue warmed by its nearness to the smoke flue from the furnace in the winter, and heated by means of a small stove or flue heater in the summer time. It is important that all warm air ducts should have a humidifier of some kind.

It is not my intention to go into detail in any part of school planning in particular, but to give a general idea of the proper requirements, so that I will not dwell longer on heating and ventilation than to say that each pupil should have a supply of 30 cu. ft. of fresh warmed air every minute. This would mean a change of air eight times every hour.

## DRAINAGE.

Regarding drainage I think when there is no public sewer the best method for the disposal of sewage is the septic tank system. This is a system composed of two chambered tanks, in the first of which the solids are held until converted into a liquid and enter the second compartment in this state, from whence it is conveyed through loose jointed tile drains about 12 in. below the surface of the soil. The system has been very thoroughly thought out by Mr. M. J. Quinn, of the National Equipment Co., Toronto. Mr. Quinn has also what is known as the "Peerless Pneumatic Water System," this is a system by which water may be pumped either by hand or power from a well into a tank in the basement and an air pressure is thus formed in the tank that will give a circulation of water to any portion of the build-



ing for any use. I mention Mr. Quinn's name in this connection because he was the author of the system laid down by the Government and whose writing on this subject is used as an authority. In fact, I have asked Mr. Quinn to come here to-day to give information to anyone desiring same on either his septic tank system for disposal of sewage, or his Peerless Pneumatic System of water supply. Each of which is of great value to the rural school where there is no drainage or water pressure.

Where outside privies are used there should be protection for the scholars from the school building to the privies, in all kinds of weather. Dry earth closets would be the best. Ashes or road dust can be used and the buckets emptied as often as found necessary. Shade trees arranged judiciously around these privies will be found of great advantage. The sanding of the woodwork I think a good way to prevent indecent writing in the privies, which is sure to happen if possible.

#### MODERNIZING OF BUILDINGS.

If your present building has been substantially built and is still sound, and you desire to improve it, it would be well to submit the conditions to a competent architect and perhaps for a small sum a quite modern building may be made from your old one. For very often an old building will lend itself very readily to slight alterations that will change its entire character.

#### STYLE.

Regarding the architectural style of design to be used in the rural school I would say it would depend largely on the surroundings. If, for instance, the building would have a setting among tall pines or other trees it would be a pity not to adopt some rustic style; for any other style would look cold and out of tune. On the other hand such a design as this would look just as much out of tune on a city street amidst buildings more or less classic in character. Style costs nothing extra.

If your surrounding country has many field stones, and you can build as cheaply with them as with brick, I would say by all means use the stone, if you have a good design. In this respect field stone is like a violin if used by experienced hands

it is the sweetest instrument, but when in the hands of a beginner it is the worst.

Of course we are often obliged to use materials most easily gotten in the neighbourhood but any material can be worked into a pleasing design if the designer knows his business.

I can't impress upon you too strongly the fact that any old building that provides accommodation is not what we need. The time is past and gone when the public should be expected to stand for that sort of building. What we want in this country is the best that can be had. Generally speaking what I have said of the rural schools will apply to larger schools, as a one-roomed school is but a unit of the larger school.

Then in the planning of all our buildings let us strive to make them:—

“ As sanitary as possible;  
As useful as possible;  
As attractive as possible.”

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THE SCHOOL FAIR AND ITS PLACE IN OUR  
EDUCATION SYSTEM.

J. S. KNAPP, B.S.A., GALT.

Since the very foundation of our educational system, it has been recognized that agriculture should, in some way, be taught in our rural schools. Various attempts have been made to supply this need, but in most cases the response was not satisfactory. The farming communities have always been opposed to this idea, one reason being that they claimed that in most cases the teachers were not qualified to give instruction in agriculture.

The advent of the District Representative was responsible for the school fair idea. While reading the *Farmers' Advocate* one day during the winter 1909, Mr. F. C. Hart, the District Representative in Waterloo, noticed a small note *re* the distribution of seed to the children in a certain school. The idea impressed him and that spring he distributed seeds to three small schools. In the fall he organized a small fair, the children brought the product of their plots to the fair, as well as their parents and older brothers and sisters. At this fair the exhibits were all judged by an expert who gave his reasons to the crowd for his placing on every class. The experiment was continued with these three schools another year, and proved so successful that the fair was extended the next year to include ten schools. Since then, the idea has spread all over the Province until last year there were 234 rural fairs in the Province, including about 2,250 schools.

The plan of the school fair as it at present exists is that in the spring the District Representative visits the school and gives the children a lecture on some phase of agriculture. This year we carried with us a large picture of a heavy horse, a beef animal and a dairy cow. While at the school we pointed out the different parts of the animal, and also told the pupils what is the desired conformation. You would be surprised at the interest the children took in this lecture. While at the school, we explain all the rules and regulations regarding the school fair and at the same time leave applications for seed or eggs to be filled out and returned to us. We also ask each school to appoint a director to take charge of the work.

This year in our county the children were given a choice of one of the following: oats, barley, potatoes, sweet corn, silo corn, turnips, mangels and eggs for children over ten years of age, and for children under ten years a choice of beets, carrots, onions or sweet corn. This seed is all taken home and sown on a plot at home and cared for entirely by the pupil.

Besides the plot work there are the cooking and sewing classes for the girls, the manual training class for the boys, and, probably most important of all, the live stock classes, classes for beef and dairy calves, light and heavy colts.

During the summer, the plots are all judged by either the District Representative, his assistant or a competent school teacher, and prizes awarded for the best cared for plots.

Generally about ten schools are included in a school fair district. Early in the summer either the latter part of May or first of June, the directors from all the schools in the school fair are called together for their first directors' meeting. At this meeting they elect their president, secretary and other officers. This Board meets two or three times before the fair is held and makes all arrangements for the holding of the fair. It is surprising how interested most of the directors are. In the first place, it is considered a great honour in most schools to be elected to this position. We have frequently had directors walk three or four miles to be present at a directors' meeting. At first, as would be expected, the children are a little backward in expressing themselves, but they soon get acquainted and often suggest some very valuable pointers for the success of the fair. At one Directors' meeting last year we were discussing the advisability of conducting a booth for patriotic purposes, and one of the directors suggested that this should be closed after the prize money was paid, otherwise the children might spend too much of this money over the counter. It is surprising the responsibility the officers of the Association often feel, for example, shortly after taking up my duties at Galt as District Representative, the President of one of the School Fair Associations walked into the office one day and asked if I expected to be permanently on the work. After informing him that I did, he told me of his responsible position and remarked that he supposed their Association could rely on me for assistance at any time. You see the idea. The children were running the fair, not the Department of Agriculture.



When school fair day arrives, the people come from all directions in hay rack loads, carioles and automobiles. The grain and vegetable exhibits are put in a big tent. Live stock is generally accommodated outside. While judging is going on, various educational competitions are being conducted. The driving competition is one that is becoming very popular. Last year, we had a girls' class and a boys' class. This year, I have been told of several children who are already training their horses and learning how to hold their lines properly.

So much for the method of conducting a school fair, but you want to know what the school fair is accomplishing. It, I believe, is a practical way of teaching agriculture to the children. It is self-teaching. They are given a package of seed and told to do the best they can with it. If they are of an inquiring mind, they will find out the very best way of growing that crop. It gives the child something to claim as its own, something to take an interest in. To show you that it is accomplishing this purpose, let me read you the following essay.

#### LAST YEAR'S SCHOOL FAIR.

"Good morning, John."

"Good morning."

"How do you feel this morning, after our football game yesterday. Pretty stiff, I suppose?"

"No, not at all. I feel fine this morning. I had a good night's sleep last night."

"How do you like our school by this time, John?"

John Howard and his parents had just moved into a little country settlement and everybody was still a little strange to John, excepting a boy, Jack Simpson, living next door.

Jack and John met just at the gate, as they were leaving their homes for school.

"Oh, fine, Jack. Everybody is so thoughtful of strangers. I am being treated with the kindest hospitality, and I think our teacher Mr. Cranson, is just a lovely man."

"Yes, I think so, too. He is not as quick-tempered as the one we had last year. But still he's a teacher—he'll get cross if we neglect our home-work."

"Well, Jack, I worked at my arithmetic over an hour last night and still I haven't it right. I guess it must be because I am too stupid."

"Let that pass by, John, we are not going to worry about that now. But I want you to come to our school fair with me next Wednesday, the 29th. We are going to have it at Winterbourne this year. We will have a lovely drive of about seven miles before we get there."

"Oh, thank you, Jack, I shall be pleased to go with you. I am one of the fellows that is liable to take in everything that is going. But what is this school fair? What do you do? How do you amuse yourself? What do you—?" "Hold on, let me answer your first question or I'll forget the rest. I do not know what we are going to do this year, but I can tell you what we did last last year and what our school fair was like last year. In the first place, a person is appointed in every school as director. These directors really have the whole show in their hands. All kinds of seeds and eggs for setting are sent from the Department of Agriculture at Galt to the director of each school and given to any pupil that wishes to take part. We had our last year's school fair on October 14th in the Jerusalem school yard. We started from home about nine o'clock and took our dinner with us. First thing we did when we got to Jerusalem was to take our exhibits into the large tent which was erected for the purpose. I took Plymouth Rock chickens, potatoes, oats, a collection of weeds and a collection of insects. My sister, Mary, took sewing, baking, writing and an essay. After the people gathered and all the exhibits had been collected, the tent doors were closed while the judges were left to do their work. In the meantime, the people enjoyed themselves by playing various games until the dinner-bell rang and luncheon was served in the school house by the ladies. After dinner, we had all kinds of races, which were participated in by everybody and for which ribbon prizes were awarded. By this time, the tent doors opened and everybody ran for the tent, being anxious to see who won a prize. On entering to your left, you could see all kinds of goodies, cookies, tea biscuits, etc., and fancy work that the girls did. On the other side were all kinds of roots, grains, potatoes, chickens and many other things too numerous to mention. At about three o'clock a programme was started,

which consisted of all kinds of speeches and the donating of the prizes which were chiefly in money. Shortly after, people started collecting their possessions and getting into their buggies and starting for home."

"Oh, I feel like clapping, Jack. For I am sure you must have had a lovely time last year and I know we will have a good time this year. But we must hurry on, for I thought I heard the five-minute-to-nine bell ring."

The school fair, I believe, is helping wonderfully to develop initiative on the part of the pupils. It enables them to express their ideas better, especially those who are fortunate enough to be directors. Inspector Shepherd of our county tells me that he notices a marked improvement in this regard in the schools that have undertaken school fair work.

Indirectly the school fair provides an excellent opportunity for distributing seed of superior varieties of farm crops through the county. The greatest pleasure of all as far as the District Representative is concerned is to visit these children a year or so after they have entered this work and have them show you the yearling and two-year-old colts or heifers which are theirs and which they have won prizes on at the school fairs, or to see the flock of twenty or thirty barred rock hens all developed from the dozen eggs first supplied through the school or even better to walk back the lane and be shown a ten acre field of O.A.C. No. 21 barley or O.A.C. No. 72 oats all developed from that one pound secured for school fair work three years before.

To show you that the ratepayers appreciate the rural school fairs, I will read you the following letter:—

DEAR SIR:—

In compliance with your request, as Chairman of the School Board of Clearview, S. S. No. 19, Waterloo Township, I brought the matter of a donation in aid of Rural School Fairs before the ratepayers, and it affords me great pleasure to inform you that without a dissenting voice, the Board was instructed to subscribe the sum of five dollars.

Several ratepayers expressed themselves that, in their opinion, not in many years has the Department of Agriculture inaugurated so important a place for the keeping of the boys and girls on the farm, and early in life instilling into their minds competitive principles which awake the interest and desire to take a place at the head of winners of prizes, as that created by the Department in the Rural School Fair.

Those from the Section who attended the Fair at No. 16 last fall were loud in their praises of the affair, and said they would indeed be sorry to see it discontinued.

Yours very truly,

C. T. GROH, *Secretary.*

Coupled with school fairs, I would just like to say a word about Month Courses in Agriculture for boys who have left school.

A large majority of the boys in our rural districts leave school after passing the entrance. After staying at home for a year or so they feel the need of further education, but feel ashamed to go to the Collegiate or High School or feel that this is not entirely the education they want. To meet this need each District Representative conducts a month's or six weeks' Course in Agriculture at some central point in his county every winter during the months of January or February, this course being open only to farmers or farmers' sons. For the past two years over 1,000 young men in the Province have availed themselves of the opportunity offered by this course.

At these courses about three afternoons a week are spent judging live stock at nearby farms, the other two afternoons being confined largely to judging of grain, grass, clover and weed seeds. The mornings are spent in lecture work on different agricultural subjects as well as some subjects not entirely agricultural. For example, we devoted one period every week to composition and letter writing, another period to farm arithmetic and half of one forenoon each week to a debate. These debates, I believe, are doing more to make men out of the boys than anything else. I have seen boys who at first could not say two words on their feet, develop into exceptionally good speakers by the end of the course. Before the first week is over we always organize our class and after that throw the responsibility largely on the officers. This, I believe, means a lot to the success of any course. At the conclusion of each course, a banquet is generally held. This is an education in itself as it is generally the first time two-thirds of the boys have ever attended such a social function. I have had charge of two courses in Waterloo County in the last two winters and the concluding banquet has, in both cases, been an inspiration to me. The way the young men have been able to propose and reply to toasts has been enough to show both my assistant and myself that our month's work was not in vain. Before the conclusion of each course, a Junior Farmers' Association is formed through which various competitions are conducted, including hog-feeding, baby beef, acre profit.

Through this Association, the boys keep up the good work first begun in the month's work during the course. The improve-



ment in the agriculture of the Province due to the work of these boys is hard to estimate. I might tell you of many things accomplished by our Junior Farmers, but that is getting beyond my subject of school fairs.

Just one thing regarding the way we hope to keep our Junior Farmers interested in the school fair. This year we are starting a stock-judging competition between different schools. As I mentioned before, this spring while visiting the schools we gave the children a lecture on live stock. Where there is a Junior Farmer in the section we are asking him to train the boys and to select three boys to represent that school in the judging work. The boys will judge, place and write reason on a class of horses, beef cattle or dairy cattle. Their cards will be collected and read and the team standing highest will win the silver cup.

From this, I think, you will gather that the school fair and the month's course are all linked up in one plan for interesting the youth of our rural districts in the everyday things they find around them. One of the secrets of the success of this work, I believe, is that none of it is compulsory. No pupil is asked to take a plot. That is left entirely with the individual. There is still yet great room for improvement in both the school fair and the month's course, but these improvements can only be brought about by the hearty co-operation of Department of Agriculture, Department of Education and such bodies as you represent.

The influence of the school fair and the month's course in agriculture will be felt more in Ontario twenty years from now than it is to-day.

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# REGISTRATION OF MEMBERS

## OF THE

# Ontario Educational Association

### 1916-1917

#### GENERAL ASSOCIATION

Allan, Thomas, Durham.  
 Allan, Mrs. Thomas, Durham.  
 Allison, Miss Rowena, Leamington.  
 Ashall, Miss F. M., Cobourg.  
 Attridge, William, Waterdown.

Baird, Miss M., Smith's Falls.  
 Beatty, Miss Alma, Pembroke.  
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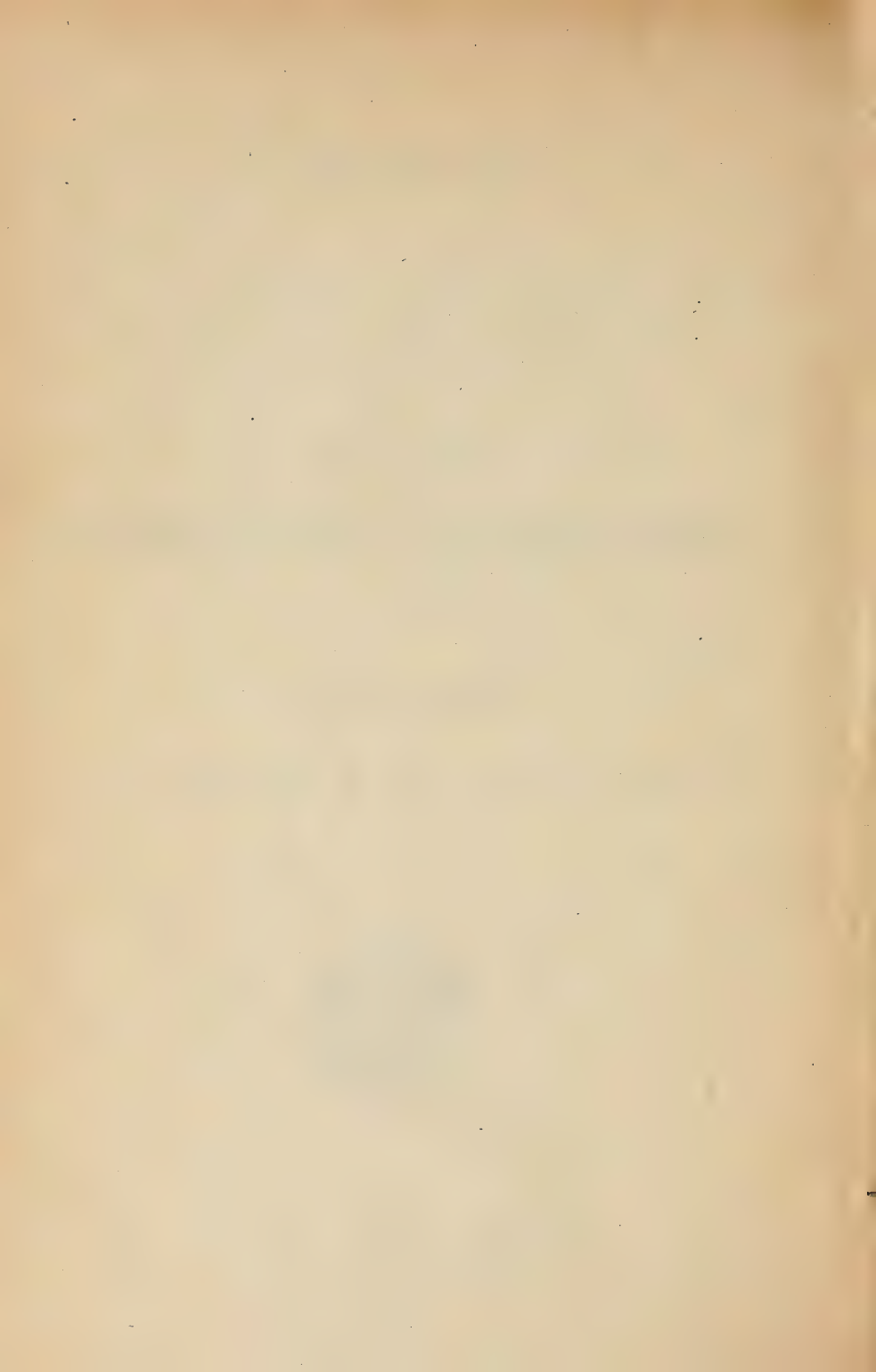


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1879-80 .....	ROBERT ALEXANDER
1881-82 .....	ARCHIBALD McMURCHY
1883 .....	HON. G. W. ROSS, LL.D.
1884 .....	JAMES A. McLELLAN, M.A., LL.D.
1885 .....	SAMUEL McALLISTER
1886 .....	H. I. STRANG, B.A.
1887 .....	JOSEPH H. SMITH
1888 .....	ROBERT McQUEEN
1889 .....	D. C. McHENRY, M.A.
1890-91 .....	WILLIAM MACINTOSH
1892 .....	SAMUEL B. SINCLAIR, B.A.
1893 .....	ALEXANDER STEELE, M.A.
1894 .....	S. T. LAZIER, LL.B.
1895 .....	ALFRED BAKER, M.A.
1896 .....	JOHN DEARNESS
1897 .....	{ A. A. JORDAN JOHN MUNROE
1898 .....	THOMAS KIRKLAND, M.A.
1899 .....	J. E. FAREWELL, LL.B.
1900 .....	Mrs. ADA M. HUGHES
1901 .....	JOHN HENDERSON, M.A.
1902 .....	JOHN SEATH, LL.D.
1903 .....	DAVID YOUNG
1904 .....	REV. CHANCELLOR BURWASH
1905 .....	JOHN BALL DOW, B.A.
1906 .....	WILLIAM SCOTT, B.A.
1907 .....	L. E. EMBREE, LL.D.
1908 .....	W. H. BALLARD, M.A.
1909 .....	H. WARD, B.A.
1910 .....	F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., D.Paed.
1911 .....	JOHN H. LAUGHTON
1912 .....	JAMES L. HUGHES, LL.D.
1913 .....	C. A. MAYBURY, LL.B.
1914 .....	W. J. SUMMERBY
1915 .....	CHAS. G. FRASER
1916 .....	MAURICE HUTTON, M.A., LL.D.



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**PROCEEDINGS**  
**OF**  
**The Fifty-Sixth Annual Convention**  
**OF THE**  
**ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION**

---

*MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 10th, 1917.

The Association met in Convocation Hall, University of Toronto.

President Hutton took the chair at 8 o'clock p.m.

Ven. Archdeacon Cody, D.D., LL.D., conducted the devotional exercises by reading from the 19th Psalm, and leading in prayer.

Moved by Mr. John Dearnness, seconded by Mr. H. I. Strang, that as the Minutes for 1916 have been printed and distributed among the members, they be considered as read, and are hereby confirmed. Carried.

Addresses of welcome were given by

(1) R. A. Falconer, LL.D., President of the University of Toronto. (See page 77.)

(2) Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education for Ontario. (See page 79.)

President Hutton addressed the Association on "The Action and Reaction of Education on the War." (See page 82.)

R. A. Gray, B.A., Chairman of the Superannuation Committee, reported as follows:

**REPORT OF THE SUPERANNUATION COMMITTEE.**

Since the last meeting of the Ontario Educational Association in 1916 your Committee has continued its efforts on behalf of the

Superannuation Bill with the same vigor and energy as in former years, and we are happy to be able to report that our efforts have been crowned with complete success. We have every confidence that the "Act respecting the Superannuation of Certain Teachers and Inspectors," which has recently been passed by the Legislature in the session of 1917, will prove one of the best on the statute books of any country, and that a new era of educational efficiency will dawn in the Province of Ontario. At first we should guard against the mistake of cherishing too great expectations from the measure, for it will take time before its beneficial effects will be altogether apparent.

Our thanks are due to Sir William Hearst and to his Cabinet for their decision to bring in the Bill as a Government measure; to the Honourable Dr. Pyne, Minister of Education, especially, who has so satisfactorily redeemed the pledge given to this Association three years ago during the administration of the late Prime Minister, Sir James Whitney; to the Honourable G. Howard Ferguson, Acting Minister of Education during the absence of Dr. Pyne on overseas service, for his sympathetic consideration of your Committee on several occasions on which he was interviewed; to Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition, for his hearty support and assistance of the Bill; and to the members of the Legislature generally, who recognized the benefits such a measure will have in advancing the cause of education in the country; to the Deputy Minister of Education, Dr. A. H. U. Colquhoun, for his unceasing efforts and encouragements and for the spirit of optimism and courtesy uniformly displayed even when our fortunes seemed to be at a very low ebb, and who gave unsparingly of his time and thought to your Committee; and to Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, for his many valuable suggestions, chiefly along the line of perfecting the administration of the Act, while the Bill was going through the House.

We are also very greatly indebted to the Actuary, Professor M. A. MacKenzie, and to the draftsman of the Bill, Mr. Allan Dymond, for the very complete, carefully-drawn, and lucid statement of its provisions.

Our thanks are also due to the teachers and inspectors, to many of the trustees and to the newspapers, all of whom were so strong and encouraging a force behind your Committee during the past



years; to the London Teachers' Association particularly, who took the initiative, and who rendered such valuable assistance to your Committee in aiding in bringing so large and representative a body of teachers and trustees from every part of the Province in that memorable delegation that assembled at the Parliament Buildings on March 9th. While the decision of the Government to carry the Bill had been reached before the delegation met, the magnificent demonstration showed unmistakably the genuineness of the desire of the substantial and permanent body of teachers in the Province for a superannuation scheme.

To recount all the work done by your Committee during the past year would weary you, and might be considered, in view of the happy culmination of our labours, somewhat out of place at this time. It will suffice to say that almost as great an effort was put forth as was made during the previous year when the merits of the Bill were set forth at the Teachers' Institutes throughout the Province.

Since first this Superannuation Committee was appointed in 1904—omitting any mention of committees previously appointed—and which has been continued from year to year ever since, many changes have been made in the personnel of the Committee, and very few of the original members served throughout all these years. It is with regret that we note that one of our members, Inspector Neil Campbell, suddenly passed away early in April at Durham. Those who were present at the deputation that met the Prime Minister, with nearly all the Cabinet, on Saturday, February 10th, will remember the thoughtful and effective speech he made on that occasion in support of superannuation.

As your Committee has completed the work for which it was appointed, we would recommend that:

- (1) The present Committee be discharged;
- (2) A new Committee be appointed, fewer in number than the last one;
- (3) The two persons elected to the Commission under the Act be members of the New Committee.

The objects of having such a Committee are, to perfect the Act, to make suitable suggestions to the Commission if it is thought

desirable to do so, and to provide a body which could be consulted by your representatives on the Commission.

In selecting the representatives, great care should be exercised. For some years until the operation of the Act becomes a matter of routine, and until suitable regulations governing its operation have been framed, and precedents created from time to time, much labor and skill will be required. You must then seek out, whether from among those who have served on the Superannuation Committee or not, persons in whose judgment you have confidence, with knowledge of the profession and with sympathy, who will also have due regard for the conservation and future stability of the fund.

As the Act is now in force, all teachers and trustees should make themselves familiar with its main provisions without delay. For this purpose a number of copies of the Act are ready for distribution during the present meeting of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

R. A. GRAY,  
*Chairman.*

The report was adopted on motion by Mr. Gray, seconded by Mr. W. Scott.

Moved by Mr. J. H. Putman, seconded by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, that we, the teachers and inspectors of Ontario, are under deep and lasting obligation to Principal R. A. Gray for his untiring efforts in promoting, and his technical advice in shaping the Superannuation Bill, and that as a token of our appreciation, we appropriate from the funds of the Ontario Educational Association the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars, to be used in purchasing for Mr. Gray a suitable memento or souvenir, as a tangible mark of our esteem; and that Principal Scott of the Normal School, Principal Hagarty of Harbord Street College Institute and Inspector Ward of Toronto be a Committee to purchase the souvenir and on our behalf present it to Mr. Gray. Carried.

The nomination of officers resulted in the following officers being elected:

*President* . . . . William Pakenham, B.A., D. Paed.

*Secretary* . . . . Robert Willson Doan, 216 Carlton Street, Toronto.

*Treasurer* . . . . Henry Ward, B.A., Toronto.

Nominations for the position of Commissioner on Superannuation were received as follows: Messrs. R. A. Gray, C. G. Fraser, T. A. Reid.

It was decided to allow additional nominations to be made on Wednesday evening.

Moved by Mr. H. Ward, seconded by Mr. J. H. Laughton, that this Association appoint a Standing Committee on Legislation and Discipline, consisting of the President, the Secretary and the Treasurer of the Ontario Educational Association and one representative elected annually from each of the four departments, viz., the Elementary, the College and Secondary School, the Supervising and Training, and the Trustees'; that in a general way the duties of this Committee be defined as follows:

(1) To present to the Minister of Education or to the Government of Ontario any recommendations which from time to time may be made by the Ontario Educational Association regarding changes in the curriculum of studies, superannuation, text-books, qualification and training of teachers, and examinations.

(2) To consider any complaint made in writing by any teacher in Ontario regarding alleged unfair treatment of the teacher by trustees or other school officials.

(3) To consider any complaint made by trustees regarding breach of contract or unprofessional conduct on the part of teacher or inspector.

(4) That this Committee shall meet whenever in the opinion of its chairman a meeting is necessary, and that any funds necessary for these meetings or for otherwise carrying on its work shall be supplied by this Association.

Ordered to stand as a notice of motion.

The President declared the meeting adjourned.

After the adjournment, a reception was held by President Falconer, on behalf of the University, which was largely attended.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 8 o'clock p.m., President Hutton in the chair.

Rev. H. P. Plumtre, M.A., conducted the devotional exercises by reading the Third chapter of Proverbs and leading in prayer.

O. D. Skelton, M.A., addressed the Association on "Fifty Years of Confederation." (See page 94.)

N. W. Rowell, M.P.P., addressed the Association on "The Dominions and the War." (See page 106.)

The following communications were received:

(1) From Sir Philip Hutchins, Chairman of Council, League of the Empire, as follows:

17TH FEBRUARY, 1917.

DEAR SIR,—Although it is impossible to hold any important gathering of the Imperial Union of Teachers this year owing to war conditions, yet possibly some of your members may be in England, and thus through them touch may yet be maintained between British teachers and those from Overseas.

The Imperial Union of Teachers will meet as usual in the middle of July, and I am to ask you if you will kindly let any of your members who may be here know of the meeting. Further, we should be glad to have a list of any such members, so that we may communicate with them in regard to the proceedings, and send them papers connected therewith.

The events of the last three years have brought our Empire into intimate relationship with many foreign countries, and great additional interest was gained in last year's meetings through including in the Conference representatives from all those countries now in alliance with us (*i.e.*, France, Russia, Belgium, Italy, Serbia), inasmuch as the higher ideals in education were discussed from many different points of view. In addition to the representatives from foreign countries, it is proposed this year to invite also some teachers from the United States of America.

At the meeting next July papers will be read concerning the higher ideals in education of both Eastern and Western countries (speaking from the geographical position of Great Britain), and consideration will be given as to the ways in which these ideals may best be made available for building up the spiritual equipment for life which each child should possess. In so large a subject it is probable that this Conference could take but a preliminary survey of the ground to be covered. From the Eastern standpoint, we propose to have papers dealing with Russian and with Indian ideals;



from the Western standpoint, with those of the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin races.

We quite understand that at the present time travelling is all but impossible, but yet the very conditions of the war may enable certain members to attend who might not otherwise be in this country. Even if it should be impossible to carry out any important meeting this year, it is yet hoped that the way may be opened for a fuller consideration of the subject when peace conditions again prevail.

Hoping to have your kind interest in regard to this matter,

I am,

Yours faithfully,

PHILIP HUTCHINS,

*Chairman of the Council.*

R. W. DOAN, ESQ.,

*General Secretary,*

*Ontario Educational Association,*

The above letter was referred by the Board of Directors to the League of the Empire Section. Approved.

(2) From Mrs. Frederick Monro, Toronto, with reference to the memorial statue to Miss Edith Cavell.

Moved by J. L. Hughes, LL.D., seconded by John Dearness, M.A., that this Association heartily approves of the proposal that children in the schools of Ontario be urged to unite in raising a fund for the erection of a monument to the memory of Miss Edith Cavell. Carried.

(3) From Mr. Wm. Greenwood Brown, in reference to Physical and Military Training in Schools.

On motion, this letter was taken as read.

(4) From Mr. W. A. Parks, Secretary, Royal Ontario Museum of Palaeontology, extending a cordial invitation to the members of the Ontario Educational Association to visit the Museum during the meeting of the Association.

Mr. Dearness read the report of the Auditors. (See page 76.)

Moved by Mr. Dearness, seconded by Mr. Nethercott, that the report of the Auditors be adopted. Carried.

Pursuant to notice given on Tuesday, Mr. Henry Ward, seconded by Mr. Laughton, moved the resolution respecting the appointment of a Standing Committee on Legislation and Discipline. (See page 11.)

The motion was carried.

The election of two members of the Association to serve on the Superannuation Committee was announced as the next order of business. An additional nominee was Mr. J. H. Putman.

It was agreed that the voting be by ballot, and that the two candidates securing the highest number of votes be declared elected.

The result of the voting was that Messrs. R. A. Gray of Toronto and J. H. Putman of Ottawa were declared elected.

Moved by Mr. Wm. Scott, seconded by Mr. D. A. Maxwell, that the thanks of the Association be and are hereby tendered to the Hon. R. A. Pyne, R. A. Falconer, LL.D., O. D. Skelton, M.A., N. W. Rowell, M.P.P., for the able and inspiring addresses which they have delivered during this Convention, and to President Hutton for the courteous and efficient manner in which he has conducted the business of the Convention.

Dr. Pakenham, the President-elect, put the motion and declared it carried.

Moved by the Rev. James Buchanan, seconded by Mr. James L. Hughes, that the thanks of the Association be tendered to the Legislature, the Hon. W. R. Hearst, Mr. N. W. Rowell and Hon. Dr. Pyne for the very handsome manner in which they have placed upon the statute books the Superannuation Bill, which will be a great boon to the teaching profession of the Province. Carried.

Moved by Mr. E. S. Hogarth, seconded by Mr. Henry Ward, that the next meeting of the Ontario Educational Association be held during the Easter holidays, 1918, in Toronto, and that the decision as to the local place of meeting be left to the Board of Directors. Carried.

The meeting closed after the singing of the National Anthem.

After the adjournment the officers of the Canadian Branch of the League of the Empire held a reception, which was largely attended and thoroughly enjoyed by the members of the Association.

R. W. DOAN,  
*General Secretary.*

*MINUTES OF THE ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.*

THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The meeting of the Elementary Department of the Ontario Educational Association was held in the East Hall of the University Building, on the forenoon of the above date.

The meeting was called to order at 9.35.

On account of the illness of Mr. Hugh A. Beaton, the President, Miss Louise N. Currie, the Vice-President, took the chair.

Secretary Fraser led in devotional exercises.

As the Minutes of last year's meeting had appeared in the Report of the Proceedings, they were taken as read and approved.

The President said a few words, expressing his regret at not being able to preside, and hoped he would be excused.

Secretary Fraser outlined the origin and purpose of the Department; and pointed out some of the lines of usefulness it might take up in unifying the various sections and presenting the resolutions of the combined Public School Teachers before the proper authorities.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

*President* . . . . . Miss Louise N. Currie, Toronto.

*Vice-President* . . . Mr. G. A. Jordison, Maynooth.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

*Representative on*

*Legislation Committee*. Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.

The meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER,  
*Secretary.*

# MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10, 1917.

The Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto Building on the above date. The first hour was given to registering members and delegates.

At 10.15 a.m. the meeting was called to order, Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., President, in the chair. All united in singing the National Anthem.

Mr. S. Nethercott read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Chas. G. Fraser was elected Minute-Secretary.

The minutes, as printed in last year's Report of the Proceedings, were taken as read, and confirmed.

The following communications of the year were presented:

1. From the following Teachers' Institutes, contributing to the Public School Section of the O.E.A.:—

Brant .....	\$5.00	Oxford .....	5.00
Chatham .....	5.00	Perth .....	2.00
Essex (S).....	5.00	Peterboro .....	2.00
Frontenac (S).....	5.00	Renfrew .....	5.00
Grey (W).....	5.00	St. Catharines.....	2.00
Halton .....	5.00	Simcoe (E).....	5.00
Hastings (N).....	3.00	Simcoe (N).....	5.00
Huron (W).....	5.00	Stormont .....	5.00
Kenora .....	5.00	Timiskaming .....	5.00
Kingston .....	5.00	Thunder Bay.....	5.00
Lanark (E).....	5.00	Toronto .....	70.00
Lincoln .....	5.00	Waterloo .....	5.00
Leeds and Grenville (1)....	5.00	Wellington (N).....	5.00
Middlesex (W).....	5.00	Wentworth .....	5.00
Muskoka .....	2.00	Windsor .....	2.00
Nipissing .....	10.00		
Northumberl'd and Durham (3)	2.10		\$210.10

2. From the County Institutes:—The correspondence for the year and resolutions of provincial importance passed thereat.

3. From the officials of the various departments and sections of the O.E.A., 1916-17.



4. From the Prime Minister, the Minister of Education, and the various Officials of the Department of Education, 1916-17.

5. The correspondence with the officers and members of the Executive of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.

6. From the Windsor, Walkerville and Sandwich Teachers' Institute:—A plain statement of their views regarding cigarette-smoking, the frequent attendance at vulgar and exciting movies, and the conspicuous exhibition of posters of a vulgar and exciting kind, as being physically, mentally and morally injurious.

7. From the Nipissing Teachers' Institute:—Regarding the marking of Entrance papers only by Public School Teachers doing Entrance work.

8. From the Royal Ontario Museum, Toronto:—Inviting the teachers to visit the Museum during the meeting of the O.E.A.

9. From the *Toronto Daily Star*:—Asking for digests of the proceedings of our Section and of papers which are to be presented.

These communications were received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

By resolution, the President was asked to appoint a "Committee on Resolutions," and to announce it at the close of the morning session.

Mr. Chas. G. Fraser presented the Report of the Secretary, reviewing the progress of the Public School Section during the twenty years in which he had been an officer of the Association.

(See page 198.)

The report was adopted and the Secretary was requested to have it included in the Report of the Proceedings.

The Report of the Treasurer was then presented, showing:—

#### RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand from 1915-16.....	\$121 60
Members' Fees .....	265 75
From Teachers' Institutes.....	210 10
Total .....	\$597 45

## EXPENDITURES.

Members' Fees to the General Association.....	\$107 60
Railway Agent—Viseing Certificates .....	59 00
Secretary Fraser .....	100 00
Treasurer Spiers .....	30 00
Minute Secretary .....	20 00
Postage, Stationery, Supplies, etc. ....	34 30
Expenses of Superannuation Committee.....	11 50
Printing, Services, etc. ....	9 00
<hr/>	
Total . . . . .	\$371 40
Balance on hand.....	226 05

The report was received and referred to the Auditors.

Mr. J. C. Spence, Ottawa, and Mr. Geo. W. Holman, Seaforth, were appointed Auditors.

Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock, Vice-President, presented the Report of the Committee on Legislation. (See page 193.) The report was received and adopted.

Mr. G. A. Jordison, Chairman of the "Third Book" Committee, reported progress.

Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound, Chairman of the Superannuation Committee of this Section, gave an account of the movement in favor of superannuation which led up to the passing of the Act this year.

On motion of Mr. John Rogers, Lindsay, and Mr. Wm. Linton, Galt, the report was received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, presented the report of the Committee on Supplementary Reading. (See page 196.) The report was adopted and ordered to be included in the Report of the Proceedings.

Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound, presented the following as a notice of motion, but it was seconded and carried unanimously:

"That this Department of the Ontario Educational Association, representing 12,000 Ontario Public School teachers and 85 per cent. of those engaged in the primary, the secondary and the training schools of the Province, expresses its appreciation of the Hon.

R. A. Pyne, Minister of Education; the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, and his other colleagues; Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition, and the Ontario Legislature, for placing on the Statutes of the Province the Superannuation Act, which we are confident will prove the very keystone in the arch of our educational system, ensuring greater stability to the profession, a more highly qualified body of teachers, with training bettered by experience, a more contented body of workers whose interest in the Superannuation Fund, increasing from year to year, will represent a tangible expression of the Province's appreciation of faithful service in the great work of nation building." Carried.

The Committee on "Report Cards" reported progress.

Secretary Fraser presented the following motion, which was referred to the Committee on Resolutions, with approval: "That the Local Teachers' Institutes sending delegates to the Public School Section of the O.E.A. be charged a membership fee of Five Dollars (\$5.00) for each hundred members it has; and that one session of the Public School Section be devoted to the work directly proposed for, and by, the local Institutes."

The President announced the following as the Committee on Resolutions:—Mr. S. Netherecott, Woodstock, Chairman; Mr. J. W. Snelgrove, London; Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen; Mr. A. E. Bryson, Cobalt; Mr. T. A. Reid, Owen Sound; Mr. John Munro, Hamilton; Mr. Wm. Linton, Galt; Miss M. M. Carpenter, Gananoque; Miss C. A. Winters, Pembroke, and Secretary Fraser.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

##### *Joint Meeting.*

#### PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION—TEACHERS' ALLIANCE SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15 o'clock, President Kerr in the chair.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, President, Ontario Teachers' Alliance, then read an address on "The Work of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance Under New Conditions."

The suggestions contained in the paper, recommending that the work which had been taken up by the Ontario Teachers' Alliance should be placed in charge of a committee of the General Associa-

tion of the O.E.A., was adopted, and Mr. Hogarth was requested to have his paper included in the report of the proceedings. (See page 126.)

The report of the Treasurer of the O.T.A. was then presented by Miss Margaret Meston, and also the report of the Auditors, which was adopted.

Vice-President Nethercott was then called to the chair, and the President, Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., presented the President's Address on "Leadership."

On motion of Mr. Geo. A. Cole and Mr. John Rogers, supported by Secretary Fraser, the meeting expressed its appreciation of the valuable ideals it contained, and asked that it be printed in the Report. (See page 121.)

Dr. Wallace Seecombe, Chief Dental Officer, Toronto Public Schools, then gave an address on "Good Teeth—Good Health—Good Citizenship."

The appreciation of the meeting was expressed, and the Doctor was asked to have it incorporated in the published Report. (See page 133.)

A resolution was also passed, asking the Department of Education to have it published and circulated throughout the Province.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The forenoon session of the Public School Section of the O.E.A. took the form of three conferences—Primary Teachers', Rural Teachers' and Public School Principals'.

#### THE PRIMARY TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Primary Teachers met in conference in Room 11.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30. Miss H. Milne, Palmerston Avenue School, Toronto, in the chair.

Secretary Fraser led in devotional exercises.

Miss Ethel M. Hall, Primary teacher, Weston, read a very valuable paper on "The Kindergarten Primary, Where There Is No Kindergarten," for which she received a warm vote of thanks. (See page 138.)



On account of the absence of Mr. Coombs of the Faculty of Education, Toronto, because of bereavement, the teachers adjourned to the Croft Chapter House to hear the Round Table Discussion on "Kindergarten-Primary Work."

At 11.00 a.m., the Conference resumed work, and Dr. S. B. Sinclair gave a very valuable address on "What is Meant by Learning to Read?"

The meeting then adjourned.

#### THE RURAL TEACHERS' CONFERENCE.

The Rural School Teachers met in conference in the East Hall, Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen, in the chair.

After devotional exercises, Mr. T. C. Birchard, Cobocok, was elected Secretary.

Miss Bessie J. McKenna, B.A., Supervisor of Women's Labor, Ottawa, gave a very instructive address on the "School as a Community Centre." She emphasized the fact that, in the past, the school had not lived up to its possibilities, and made a strong appeal for the support of the teachers in aiding to develop the "Creative Spirit of the 20th Century," adapting the work of the school to the activities and needs of each separate community, and developing the pupils, through work, placing before them the great problems of the nation, and associating art and beauty in every line and form of life.

A vote of thanks was tendered Miss McKenna, and she was requested to have her address incorporated in the Report.

President Creelman, Commissioner of Agriculture for Ontario, and President of the O.A.C., gave an address on "To What Extent Can Vocational Direction Be Given to Our Boys and Girls in Our Rural Schools?" (See page 149.)

The thanks of the meeting were tendered to Dr. Creelman, and a request was made that the address be published in the Report.

Dr. J. B. Dandeno, Inspector of Agricultural Classes in Ontario, gave a very instructive address, showing the very wonderful development that had taken place in the teaching of Agriculture in the schools of the Province since 1903, when it was really introduced and called attention to the special features and provisions which were emphasized in the present year.

The teachers expressed their appreciation of the address by a vote of thanks, and asked to have it put in form for including in the Report.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE.

The Principals met in conference in the Ladies' Reading-room.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30, Mr. John Munro, B.A., Hamilton, in the chair.

All joined in singing the National Anthem.

Mr. J. A. Hill, Toronto, was elected Secretary.

Mr. J. A. Hill gave a very careful presentation of the value of the subject of "Oral Composition" in our schools, a subject which has been specialized in Frankland School, Toronto, from the Primary Grade to the highest classes. (See page 156.)

Two pupils, Jack Kannivan and Eric Blaney, each gave an oral composition, the first on "Wireless Telegraphy," which showed a careful research and a fine grasp of the whole subject, while the latter spoke on the "Cecropia Moth," having specimens of the moth in all stages of its development, for illustration. The boys were warmly applauded, and a vote of thanks to them was passed.

Principal Hill submitted a list of topics which one of the members of his staff had kept in her class during the year. It showed the names of the pupils, the topics assigned or selected, and the teacher's remarks as to the success of each pupil.

Mr. W. F. Moore read a spirited defence of "Cadet Work in Our Public Schools," making several suggestions as to how the work could be improved. (See page 159.)

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, and seconded by Mr. C. A. Moore, Campbellford:—"That a Drill Text-book, suitable for Cadet Corps, be prepared by some competent person." Carried.

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, and seconded by Mr. J. A. Short, Swansea:—"That the age limit for Cadet Corps be changed in the Provincial Act from 14-18 years, so as to read, as in the Dominion Regulations, '12-18 years.'" Carried.

It was moved by Mr. J. A. Hill, Toronto, and seconded by Mr. J. W. Plewes, Chatham:—"That the Cadet Course of work, or its

equivalent in Physical Training, be made compulsory in all schools where the Board thereof believes the conditions to be favorable." Carried.

A very interesting and suggestive "Round Table" discussion on "What Vocational Direction Can Be Given to Public School Pupils?" was introduced by Dr. James L. Hughes, and was followed by many others. Each cited efforts that had been made along this line, and the success that had attended the efforts. It showed how valuable a part of the teacher's work such efforts were, in helping the boys and girls to engage in a life-work for which they were specially adapted, and in which they would be eminently happy and successful.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

##### *Joint Meeting.*

#### PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION—PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.15, President Kerr in the chair.

Dr. Jas. M. Barton, Director of Physical Education, University of Toronto, gave a most surprising report on "Medical Inspection of Recruits, with Special Points to Teachers and Parents." (See page 164.)

Dr. F. S. Minns, President, Physical Training and School Hygiene Section, was then called to the chair.

The Double Trio of Perth Avenue School, Toronto, delighted the audience with a selection from "Elijah," and in response to an encore, Miss Doris Fox, one of the Trio, gave a beautiful rendering of Wordsworth's "Daffodils."

Dr. E. A. Peterson, Assistant Superintendent of Schools and Director of Medical Inspection, Cleveland, Ohio, gave a very valuable address on "New Ideals of Physical Training."

The thanks of the Association was tendered the Doctor, and he was asked to have it included in the Report.

President Kerr was then recalled to the chair, and Archdeacon Cody, D.D., LL.D., Rector of St. Paul's Church, Toronto, gave a most inspiring address on "Will There Be a New Canada?"

On motion of Mr. Henry Ward, seconded by Miss E. Abram, a very hearty expression of appreciation was tendered Dr. Cody, and he was requested to allow his address to be included in the Report of the Proceedings. [See page 172.]

The meeting then adjourned.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

Meeting was called to order at the close of the meeting of the Elementary Department.

President Kerr in the chair.

The minutes of the meetings for Tuesday and Wednesday were read and approved.

On motion of Mr. T. A. Reid and Mr. Thomas Packer, the thanks of the Section were expressed to the Perth Avenue Trio, and the Secretary was instructed to see that their favor was suitably acknowledged.

The usual allowances were passed.

The expenses of the President, the Secretary, the Chairman of the Superannuation Committee, and of the delegates called to Toronto to meet the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, on February 10th, were passed.

A contribution of \$15.00 was made to the Physical Training and School Hygiene Section to pay part of the expenses of Dr. Peterson, as was also a grant of \$25.00 towards the expenses of Dr. John Frown in attending the joint meeting of the Public School Section and the Trustee Department in 1916.

The resolutions of the Principal's Conference regarding: (1) The preparation of a Drill Text-book for Cadet Corps, (2) a change in the Age Limit for Cadet Corps, and (3) the making of Cadet work compulsory, were adopted.

The Report of the Committee on Resolutions was then presented by Mr. Nethercott, chairman, and was adopted. (See page 201.)



The éléction of officers resulted as follows :—

*President* . . . . . Mr. S. Nethercott, Woodstock.  
*Vice-President* . . . Mr. John Munro, B.A., Hamilton.  
*Past President* . . . Mr. Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.  
*Secretary* . . . . . Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Avenue, Toronto.  
*Treasurer* . . . . . Mr. R. M. Speirs, Toronto.  
*Representative* . . . Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas.

The following Conference representatives were elected :—

*Primary Teachers.*

Mrs. Ida Clipperton, Toronto (S.S. No. 27, York).  
 Miss Ethel M. Hall, Weston.  
 Miss Elizabeth Dunkley, Picton.

*Rural School Teachers.*

Mr. W. H. Johnston, Kippen.  
 Miss Lena M. Field, Stoney Creek.  
 Dr. S. B. Sinclair, Toronto.

*Public School Principals.*

Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas.  
 Mr. N. C. Mansell, Sault Ste. Marie.  
 Mr. L. J. Colling, Peterborough.  
 The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

Meeting was called to order at 2.10, President Kerr in the chair.

Dr. C. K. Clarke, Superintendent, Toronto General Hospital, presented a paper on "The Alarming Problem of the Sub-Normal Child." (See page 180.)

Dr. F. J. Conboy, Toronto, President, Ontario Association for the Care of the Feeble-Minded, gave an address outlining the plan which is proposed for the Solution of the Problem of Sub-Normal Children in Toronto, dealing also with the difficulties of the problem of allowing these unfortunate children to attend our schools in the ordinary classes. (See page 184.)

A very spirited discussion followed, in which difficulties were discussed and opinions asked.

It was moved by Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas, and seconded by Mr. R. F. Sanderson, Oakville:—That before people are allowed to marry they should present a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner that they are mentally and physically qualified for the rights of parenthood. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, and seconded by Mr. J. A. Short, Swansea:—That we express our approval of the plan proposed by Dr. Conboy for the solution of the problem of the feeble-minded in Toronto, and that we also hope that provision will be made for the carrying out of such a plan, not only in Toronto, but in other places throughout the Province. Carried.

The thanks of the Section were tendered to Dr. Clarke and Dr. Conboy, and their addresses were ordered to be included in the Report.

All united in singing the National Anthem, and the meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER,  
*Secretary.*

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### MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The first session opened at 9.45 o'clock with a large number of members present.

After the opening exercises, the minutes being published in the proceedings, were taken as read, and the first item on the programme was taken up, a round-table discussion on kindergarten occupations, led by Miss McIntyre. For an outline of this most interesting introduction of the subject, see page 223. Miss McIntyre had a variety of children's work, mat weaving, etc. Miss Coady spoke on free drawing, with many illustrations of same. Miss Louise N. Currie explained a most interesting exhibition of bead-stringing and

tile work, also artistic forms with seeds. Miss Clara Brenton brought a large collection of free cutting, etc., from her London kindergarten. Miss Daisy Dorrien spoke of her exhibition of art work, which was certainly most suggestive.

At 11 o'clock Prof. J. G. Hume gave a delightful address on "The Imagination." (See page 215.)

The meeting then adjourned.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The first item on the programme was a round-table discussion on "Kindergarten Primary Work," in which the following members, representing kindergarten and primary teachers, took part: Misses Hall, Sparling, Robb, Brenton, Currie and Snider.

Prof. G. M. Wrong then gave one of the most thoughtful and inspiring addresses ever enjoyed by our Section on "Fifty Years of Confederation." (See page 209.)

#### WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

The topic for this meeting was "The Home and School Clubs." The first item was a discussion on the methods of organization and results, participated in by Mrs. Newton McLoven, Mrs. Irwin, Mrs. Payne and Mrs. Carson.

Mrs. Courtice then gave a most interesting paper on "How Can We Prepare Our Children for Citizenship and Guide Them in Choosing Their Special Life Work?" (See page 206.)

The meeting then adjourned.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The first item on the programme was the meeting of the Elementary Department, at which Miss Louise N. Currie was elected President.

This was followed by the election of officers, as follows:—

*President*.....Miss Clara Brenton, London.

*Vice-President*.....Miss E. Coady, Toronto.

*Director*.....Miss H. Heakes, Toronto.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Miss L. Williams, 96 Jameson Ave., Toronto.

*Council*.....Misses McIntyre, Currie, Baker, Bryans, Robb,  
Greenlees, Cameron, Carson, Pettit, Mof-  
fatt, McClenaghan.

The Treasurer's Report was then read and accepted, showing a balance of \$104.76. In connection with this, the most satisfactory feature noted was the fact that the standing and membership for this year was the largest in the history of the Section, the Public School Section being the only one with a larger membership.

Mrs. Jean Somers gave a delightful series of games, "Indoor and Out," which were participated in by a number of members, and a cordial expression of thanks was tendered Mrs. Somers.

The meeting then adjourned.

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### HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

The Home Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association held its fourteenth annual meeting in Room 51, Main Building, University of Toronto, April 11th, 1917.

The meeting was called to order at 9.30 a.m., Miss Elliott, the President, in the chair. The minutes of 1916 were read and adopted, the Treasurer's report read and confirmed.

Miss Palmer and Miss McDonald were elected Auditors; Press Reporter, Miss Calhoun; Nominating Committee, Mrs. Fairlie, Gausby, Misses Laird, Green, Manning; Miss Laird, Convener.

The President then gave her address, which was most encouraging.

Mrs. Fairlie, Y.W.C.A., Hamilton, gave a paper on "Solving the High Cost of Living." (See page 233.)

Miss Pearl Forfar gave a paper on "Sewing in Grade Schools and Other Centres." An interesting discussion followed, led by Miss Pritchard, Owen Sound.

### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2.10 p.m. Miss Laird, Professor of Household Science, University of Toronto, gave a paper on "The Daily Diet." (See page 240.)

Professor Harcourt followed with a paper on "Substitutes for Meat." (See page 239.)



Mr. Leake, who was in the audience, was asked by the President to address the meeting. He did so, asking the teachers present to send in suggestions regarding "Household Science in Rural Schools," and also on any change in the curriculum for the following year.

It was moved by Mrs. Gausby, seconded by Miss Neville, that a vote of thanks and appreciation be made to Miss Laird and Professor Harcourt for the excellent addresses they had delivered. This motion was unanimously carried.

#### APRIL 12TH—MORNING SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 9.45.

Miss Ewing, Normal School, Toronto, gave a most interesting paper on "The Relative Importance of the Phases of Household Science, and the Proportion of Time Each Should Receive." This paper is printed in full in the Annual Report. Miss Ewing wished to have a discussion on what she had outlined, and this was led by Miss Snell. (See page 228.)

It was moved by Miss Laird, seconded by Miss Neville, that any change in reference to what Mr. Leake had suggested be put before a committee. Miss Ockley moved that the President select the members for the committee.

A gentleman from Fort William gave an account of making Household Science compulsory in that city.

Miss Eva Natriss gave a brief outline of her work, "Relating Household Science in Rural Schools." Miss Alma Laroyd also outlined the installation of this work in her school.

The following officers were elected:—

*President*.....Miss Laird.

*Vice-President*.....Miss Ockley.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Miss N. A. Ewing.

*Councillors*.....Misses Elliott, Robertson, Sheffield, Sutherland,  
Ryley, H. Wright, Mrs. Gausby.

The meeting then adjourned.

(Miss) M. POWELL,  
*Secretary.*

*TECHNICAL AND MANUAL ARTS SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The Technical and Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association held its sessions in Room 11.

The first session opened at 2 p.m., with the President, Dr. James L. Hughes, in the chair.

It will be noted that the Section is under a new name, and has a President who was not elected at the 1916 session.

During the winter of 1916-17 a junction was made of the Ontario Association for the Promotion of Technical Education and the Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association. The new Section thus formed is under the name of the Technical and Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association, and has as its President Dr. James L. Hughes.

The minutes of the Manual Arts Section of the Ontario Educational Association 1916 session were read and adopted without alteration.

The President, Dr. Hughes, gave a short but pointed address, first explaining the amalgamation above described.

He then proceeded to urge the need, in Canada, of making great effort along the lines of technical education.

Reference was made to the awakening in our neighbor, the United States, to a realization of this need, and the very practical steps being taken there to find the exact need of the case and the large money grants being made to meet this need and put the education of the youth of the country upon a proper basis. The same need exists in Canada, but is not being met in a proportionately definite and aggressive manner.

Here, great stress is being placed upon agriculture. This is commendable, but training along other industrial lines is equally important. The war is working wonders in bringing innovations generally. *Efficiency* is greatly to be desired, but this must be accompanied by a proper development of the spiritual as well as the mental and physical.

The next address was delivered by Professor John Evans, of Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph. The paper was entitled "Art and Construction." The address was unique in that it dealt with

simple phases of art and construction in their basic principles. It was illustrated by drawings, which made the points of the address very clear.

Mr. Evans proceeded to show, among many other things, that education makes the worker more efficient. This results in economy of time, material and energy or effort. The educated man will produce a better piece of work with less effort in less time and with less waste of material than the uneducated man.

Care must be taken to secure suitability in material and design to the service to be rendered, and ornamentation must not be forced, but must be adapted to the thing ornamented, or it becomes superfluous and, therefore, bad.

Beauty is to be found in adaptation to service. A chair is designed to support the weight of a weary man, not to be admired for its curious and ornamented form. "Perfection is obtained by doing common things uncommonly well." To secure the best educational value, we must avoid emphasis of beauty to the neglect of service, and *vice versa*.

An interesting discussion followed the address.

The following were elected a Nominating Committee to meet and make nominations for the ensuing year and report on the re-assembling of the Section to-morrow: Mr. J. S. Mercer, Mr. S. W. Perry, Mr. A. N. Scarrow, Miss Jessie Semple and Mr. E. Faw.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH, 1917.

The second session of the Technical and Manual Arts Section, Ontario Educational Association, was opened by the President.

The Nominating Committee made the following nominations for officers for the year 1917-8, the Section adopting the report.

*Hon. President* . . . . Dr. James L. Hughes, Toronto.

*President* . . . . . Mr. John G. Graham, Central Technical School, Toronto.

*Vice-President* . . . . Mr. J. S. Mercer, Woodstock Collegiate Institute.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Mr. S. B. Hatch, Humberside Collegiate Institute, Toronto.

*Executive Committee* The above officers together with Miss Auta Powell, Normal School, Toronto; Mr. S. W. Perry, Faculty of Education, Toronto; Mr. W. M. Flummerfelt, Toronto.

The first address of the afternoon was given by Mr. John G. Graham, Central Technical School, Toronto.

The address was entitled "Art from the Point of View of the Craftsman." (See page 249.)

It was a most striking address—striking in its uniqueness and also in its merciless criticisms of prevailing notions and practices in the field of art.

The address was so full of strong points, which crowded so closely, one upon another, that it was impossible to summarize or select salient ones. An attempt to do this was found to cause the loss of others equally valuable.

A valuable and fairly general discussion of the address followed, and the section unanimously decided to have the address published in full in the Minutes. It was also unanimously decided to publish the address given by Prof. Evans.

The second address of the afternoon was a valuable combination of address on and demonstration of "Color for the Grades," by Mr. J. R. Seavey of Hamilton Normal School.

Mr. Seavey made a number of very interesting demonstrations of how to show the child the color he must learn to know, and which every child naturally loves.

The primary colors, red, yellow and blue, were shown, then combined to produce the secondaries, and, again, the tertiaries.

These combinations were shown in a variety of ways:

1. With colored tissue paper held between the spectator and the light.
2. With beautiful Japanese water-colors, and a very interesting soap-bubble study of color was also made.

Mr. Seavey carefully dealt with the color-charts, and how to make them. He also gave an exhibition of the application of color and its harmonies, as in ladies' costumes and Japanese embroideries.



After a brief discussion and expressions of appreciation of the address, the session was concluded by the hearty singing of the National Anthem.

The Treasurer's Report showed a balance on hand for the coming year of \$29.01.

S. B. HATCH,  
*Secretary.*

### MINUTES OF THE PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION.

The Physical Training and School Hygiene Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room 32, Mining Building, University of Toronto, on Wednesday morning, the President, Dr. Frederick S. Minns, in the chair.

The President gave a short paper on "Defectives in the Public Schools." He regretted that on account of sickness he had been unable to finish the survey.

Dr. Peterson, of Cleveland, gave a most interesting and helpful address on "Some Features of School Medical Inspection." He spoke of the great need of working through the parents and children rather than using the "Big Stick" method. Considerable discussion followed the address.

Dr. James L. Hughes then gave an address on "The Strathcona Trust in the Public and High Schools," showing how the fund is distributed to the various schools. He said that a great many schools were not taking advantage of the fund. Discussion followed.

The Nominating Committee brought in their report, which was unanimously adopted. The officers for 1917-18 are as follows:

*Honorary President.* Dr. James L. Hughes.

*President* ..... Dr. Frederick S. Minns.

*Vice-President* ..... Mrs. D. C. Wilson.

*Secretary-Treasurer* A. R. Barton.

*Director* ..... Dr. Helen MacMurchy.

*Councillors* ..... Miss Dyke, Miss Burris, Inspector Chapman,  
T. W. Stafford, Mr. Clarke.

A vote of thanks was tendered to the Secretary, Mr. Collings, for his interest in the work during the past year.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

At a joint meeting with the Public School Section, three excellent papers were given.

Dr. Barton, in his paper on "Medical Inspection of Recruits: Special Points of Interest to Teachers and Parents," told how simple defects in children might be remedied by a little attention being given to them, by both teachers and parents. Discussion.

Dr. Peterson, of Cleveland, gave an interesting address on "Some New Ideals in Physical Training," pointing out the great need for a broader physical training in our schools.

Discussion followed.

The paper given by Archdeacon Cody on "Will There Be a New Canada?" was a most patriotic and inspiring one, and greatly appreciated by all who heard him.

The meeting then adjourned after singing the National Anthem.

S. W. COLLINGS,  
*Secretary.*

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#### MINUTES OF THE SPELLING REFORM SECTION.

Room No. 22 was kept open during the Convention days for the distribution of literature, signing petitions and answering inquiries.

The meeting was held in Room No. 37, on Wednesday afternoon, 11th of April. President Dr. L. E. Horning occupied the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting as printed in the Convention Proceedings were taken as read and approved.

The Secretary read the text of a memorial address to the Secretary of State for India, setting forth the facts that the Indian Empire has a greater number of alphabets than all the other languages of the world, and that upwards of 10,000 characters are used to represent the 64 sounds contained in all the vernaculars, therefore a

commission should be appointed to adopt an alfabet for the languages of India based upon the Roman alfabet for at least optional use in the scools.

On motion, the endorsement of the memorial was approved by the Section.

The following offisers wer elected:

*President*.....Professor D. R. Keys, M.A., University of Toronto.

*Secretary-Treasurer* John Dearness, M.A., London, Ont.

*Committee*.....Professor J. Gibson Hume, M.A., Ph.D.; H. I. Strang, B.A., LL.D.; Professor L. E. Horning, M.A., Ph.D.; A. Pearson, B.A.; Professor E. F. Burton, B.A.; B. A. Cooper, B.A.

A very useful address was delievrd by Dr. L. E. Horning on "Practicable Means of Progress for Spelling Reformers."

Mr. John Dearness reported what the Organized Societies for the Improvement of Spelling had accomplisht in the past year.

"The Lost Values of the Alfabet, and How to Recover Them," was the subject of a paper by Mrs. Dora F. Kerr. (See page 264.)

Dr. Alexander Hamilton, M.A., gave his reasons for holding that "English is the Worst-speld Language in the World," showing how it compared disadvantageously with Spanish, Italian, German, French and even Portuguese.

Principal A. Pearson reviewed some of the inconsistencies in the present spelling-book, and made an estimate of the almost incredible financial waste incurred by the prevalent devotion to the present irrational spelling.

Mr. Wm. H. Orr gave an interesting account of the earliest efforts made in this Province to improve English spelling. He is now the sole survivor of the men who wer present at the Quebec session when Confederation was determined. From the offis of the *Oshawa Vindicator*, of which he was publisher and editor, he had from the years 1858 to 1862 sent out a monthly—the *Phonetic Pioneer*—which was the pioneer publication in this country devoted to spelling reform. In a fyle of this journal containing the report of a convention held in Toronto in March, 1859, at which was formd the British American Phonetic Society, most of whose members were

school teachers or press reporters using Pitman's shorthand, Mr. Orr advocated calling a convention of newspaper publishers to consider the adoption of an instalment of simpler spelling. The *Toronto World* deserved credit for the measure of reform it had adopted.

On motion of Mr. A. Pearson, a Committee, consisting of President Keys and Professors Hume and Horning, was appointed to interview the publishers of the *School* and the metropolitan dailies and to impress upon them the desirability and importance of making a start in the matter of simplifying and improving the present illogical fashion of spelling.

JOHN DEARNESS.

*Secretary.*

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#### MINUTES OF THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE SECTION.

The annual meeting of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance was held in Toronto University on Tuesday, April 10th, at 2 p.m. The President, Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., occupied the chair.

The minutes of annual meeting of 1916 were taken as read.

The financial statement was read and adopted, the seconder being Mr. W. F. Moore of Dundas.

The President spoke on the work of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance under new conditions. He told of its origin, aims and achievements, and pointed out that after prolonged and careful consideration on the part of a joint committee, composed of members of the Ontario Educational Association and Ontario Teachers' Alliance, it was agreed that the work that had been done by the Alliance could be carried on effectively by a committee of the Ontario Educational Association, which shall be known as "The Legislative and Discipline Committee." At a general meeting of the Ontario Education Association a recommendation to this effect was presented and carried without opposition. (See page 126.)

So the Ontario Teachers' Alliance has been absorbed by the Ontario Educational Association, and all its responsibilities assumed by that body.

Mr. Hogarth has been retained as a member of the newly formed committee.

MARGARET MASTON.

*Secretary.*



*MINUTES OF THE LEAGUE OF THE EMPIRE SECTION.*

The League of the Empire Section met in Room 59, University of Toronto, April 11th.

At 11 a.m. there was a joint meeting with the English and History Section, when Ven. Archdeacon Cody gave a masterly address on "Nationality and the War."

At 3 p.m. the meeting was called to order with Principal Hutton in the chair. Mrs. Van Koughnet read a very interesting paper from our Secretary for England, Mrs. Ord-Marshall, dealing with the various activities of the League.

Mrs. Ord-Marshall says: "The main activities of the League have been directed to war work and soldiers' comforts, and hospital supplies have been collected and distributed where most needed; also thousands of costumes were made and presented to the destitute Serbian children.

Under the auspices of the League, a Kitchener Memorial, in the form of a volume of Shakespeare's works, has been presented to every disabled soldier. This gift applies throughout the Empire, and it is hoped to arrange for the presentation to be made to all Canadians who are eligible.

The League has also presented colors and shields to the Overseas Contingents. The presentation to Canada being made by the Duchess of Argyll.

A scheme for the study of Imperial History has been formulated, and many lectures on Imperial subjects have been given at the League's head office. This very interesting paper closed with warmest greetings from the Central Committee to all members in Canada.

The report of the Secretary for Ontario was read and adopted.

It was moved by Mrs. Van Koughnet, seconded by Mrs. Dewart, "That the present officers be re-elected for the coming year." Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Baker, seconded by Mrs. Van Koughnet, "That the Secretary be instructed to secure names of teachers who might be in a position to attend the meeting of the Imperial Union of Teachers in London in July, and that credentials be given them." Carried.

Mr. W. K. George addressed the meeting on the "News from Home" movement, originated by him, giving us some valuable suggestions.

Miss Thomas of Alexandra School, Lindsay, read an interesting paper on the work of the "Comrades' Correspondence" in that school.

Principal Hutton gave us a paper on "Greece, Roumania and the Great War." (See page 271.)

The following are the officers for the ensuing year:

*Hon. President* ..... His Excellency the Duke of Devonshire.

*President for Canada* ..... Principal Hutton, LL.D.

*Vice-Presidents for Canada* .... Col. Geo. T. Denison, James L. Hughes, LL.D.

*Secretary for Canada* ..... Mrs. H. S. Strathy.

*Treasurer* ..... Mr. H. J. Baker.

*Secretary for Ontario* ..... Miss F. M. Standish, 643 Euclid Ave., Toronto.

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## MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 10, 1917.

The College and Secondary School Department met in the West Hall of the Main Building of the University of Toronto at 2.30 p.m., the Chairman, Professor W. J. Alexander, presiding.

The minutes of the two sessions of 1916 were taken as read.

The President, in his opening remarks, referred to the loss the Section had sustained in the death of Former President Loudon, Professor Fraser, Professor Kylie, Principal Steele of Orangeville, Principal Murray of Owen Sound, Principal Redditt of Barrie, and W. R. Sills of Kingston.

President Falconer of Toronto University then gave an address on "The Bearing of the Ideals of the Belligerents on Educa-

tion." He contrasted the ideals of three of the leading belligerents—Germany, France and England—and showed how the German system of militarism was a failure; how the broad and not too intense system in France had made France the beloved of nations, and how the British system, although not always attaining its ideal of righteousness and freedom, made Britain respected by all nations.

Professor Brett of Toronto University then addressed the Section on "Democracy and Education." In the course of his splendid address, he showed how democracy comes into relation with education.

Principal Gavin of Windsor Collegiate then read a well-thought-out paper on "Elements of Merit in Teachers." He advocated a Bureau of Educational Research in connection with the Education Department or the Faculties of Education.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11, 1917.

The second session of the College and Secondary School Department convened at 2.30.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

*President* . . . . . Principal Gavin, Windsor C.I.

*Vice-President* . Dean Coleman, Faculty of Education, Queen University, Kingston.

*Secretary* . . . . . W. J. Loughheed, M.A., Jarvis Street C.I., Toronto.

*Representative on Legislation Committee* . . E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Hamilton C.I.

*Directors* . . . . . Representatives from the various Sections.

Professor J. F. Macdonald, Queen's University, gave some very strong arguments in favor of Latin in his paper on "Should Latin Be Required for Matriculation?" (See page 282.)

He was followed by Principal Rogers of London C.I., who spoke on the subject, "Matriculation from the High School Point of View." He claimed that the curriculum was overcrowded and advocated a grouping of the subjects.

In the discussion on the two papers, Professor Milner, Prof. Cameron, Dean Coleman, Mr. Smith, Mr. Hogarth, Dr. Strang and Mr. Burt took part.

It was moved by Dr. Strang, and seconded by Prof. Cameron, and carried, "That the paper of Prof. Macdonald be printed in the Proceedings of the Association."

The Chairman, in introducing Miss M. H. O'Donohue, who gave an interesting paper on "Social Training in Secondary Schools," stated that Miss O'Donohue had the honor of being the first lady to give a paper before the Section.

Miss O'Donohue held that the ideal of training for service was an important one to keep before the pupils, and this ideal was to be attained by giving the students a course in citizenship and social ethics.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. J. LOUGHEED,  
*Secretary.*

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#### *MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.*

The Section met for business in Room 37 of the Main Building of the University of Toronto, on Tuesday, April 10th, at 10.30 a.m., with the President, Professor J. Home Cameron, in the chair.

The presidential address was based on reflections on the lessons in education to be derived from our experiences in the war. (See page 291.)

Mr. J. Squair read a paper, "In Memory of William Henry Fraser." (See page 343.)

After the reading of the paper, it was resolved, "That this Modern Language Section of the Ontario Educational Association has learned, with the most sincere regret, of the summons by death of one of its oldest and most faithful members, Professor W. H. Fraser.

"Professor Fraser was for many years a member of the Executive, having fulfilled the exacting duties of Secretary for five years, and also occupied the position of President in the earlier days of the Association.

"The Section has lost in Professor Fraser one whose judgment rarely led him astray, and one who had strong convictions, and whose courage was always equal to his convictions. He was a friend of education through a sense of duty, and never spared himself in



any work that could further the work of his department in the University or the interests of the Modern Language Section. He had ideas born of reflection and experience, and was always ready to contribute something of value to our meetings. We shall miss his dry humor and his valuable counsel.

"It is further resolved that this motion be placed in the records of the Section, and that a copy of it be sent to Mrs. Fraser and family, with the expression of our sympathy."

Professor de Champ read a paper in French on the interesting war-book, "Gaspard," which has had a great vogue in France. (See page 309.)

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The Section reassembled at 10 a.m., with the President, Professor Cameron, in the Chair.

Professor J. S. Will read a paper on "Problems in French Ecclesiastical History," in which he discussed the separation of Church and State in France in the year 1905. (See page 335.)

Professor R. K. Hicks read a paper on "Necessary Qualifications for the Language Teacher."

Professor C. B. Sissons read a paper on "La Bonne Entente." (See page 315.)

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The Section reassembled at 9.45 a.m., the President, Professor Cameron, being in the chair.

The following officers for the year were elected:

*President*.....W. H. Williams, M.A., Kitchener.

*Vice-President*.....Miss A. M. Willson, B.A., Toronto.

*Secretary-Treasurer* J. Squair, Toronto.

*Committee*.....R. K. Hicks, M.A., Kingston; H. S. McKellar, B.A., London; Miss E. O. Scott, B.A., Port Hope; Miss R. I. Strang, Arnprior; H. B. Tapscott, M.A., Toronto; Miss M. I. Williams, B.A., Peterborough.

The Auditors reported that the Treasurer's books were correct.

Miss C. C. Grant read a paper on "Summer Schools in French." (See page 302.)

Professor M. A. Buchanan read a paper on "The Claims of Spanish in Our Educational System." (See page 327.)

J. SQUAIR,  
*Secretary.*

### MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

The meeting was held in the Biological Building on Tuesday, April 10, 1917, the President, T. J. Ivey, in the chair.

The minutes of the session of 1916, and the Treasurer's report were read and confirmed.

In the President's address, Mr. Ivey, as examiner and also as a member of the Science Committee on the curriculum, gave an able summary of the trend of "Upper School Biology" in recent years.

C. G. Fraser, Jr., one of the most practical of our younger science men, dealt with "Some Hints and Helps in Form I Science" in a manner highly appreciated by the members.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

*Hon. President* . . . . . Dr. B. A. Bensley.

*President* . . . . . Geo. A. Carefoot.

*Vice-President* . . . . . P. C. MacLaurin.

*Secretary-Treasurer* L. H. Graham, 68 Balsam Ave., Toronto.

*Committee* . . . . . M. H. Ayers, J. F. Calvert, C. G. Fraser, Jr.,  
S. H. Henry, W. A. Jennings and Arthur  
Smith.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Arthur Smith for his efficient services as Secretary-Treasurer for the past five years.

It was learned, with regret, that Dr. A. B. Macallum could not be present, and Dr. W. A. Clemens gave a highly instructive address on the "Life History of May Flies," illustrated by views of their long aquatic and brief adult existence.

A large audience from various Sections assembled for the address by W. G. Miller, B.A., Provincial Geologist, on "A Trip, in 1916, to Australia and the South Sea Islands," in which his chief object was to report on the nickel resources of New Caledonia.

A most interesting session was closed by an able address by Dr. J. C. McLennan, F.R.S., on "Recent Advances in Physics," given in the Physics Building to the joint Natural Science and Mathematical Sections.

H. L. GRAHAM,  
*Secretary.*

### MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

The Classical Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room 13, University College, on Wednesday, April 11th, at 10 a.m. The President, Mr. H. W. Bryan, M.A., of Renfrew, took the chair.

After registration of members, the minutes of the last session were read and adopted. Mr. H. Bonis, of Thorold, then gave notice of the following motion:

"That, in the opinion of the Classical Section of the Ontario Educational Association, the time is opportune for reconsidering the whole question of the proper status of Greek in the educational system of the Province and; that this Section pledge itself to further by every legitimate means such changes in the curricula of our Secondary Schools and Universities as will restore to this language among the students of the rising generation in Ontario a degree of favor and attention commensurate with the importance of the literature which it enshrines."

Mr. Bonis' motion was seconded by Mr. P. F. Munro. It was decided that this motion should be dealt with on the following morning. The President then called on Prof. N. W. De Witt for his paper on "English and American Classical Scholarship Compared," a subject which the lecturer dealt with in his usual scholarly style. Then came M. Leon Feraru, speaking on "The Latin Parentage of Rumanian."

Both papers were so highly appreciated by the audience that, on motion, the Secretary was instructed to have them printed in full in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association. The Section then adjourned for the day. (See page 347.)

On Thursday, the 12th, the Section met again at 10 a.m. The first proceeding was the election of officers for the year 1917-18. The result was as follows:

*Hon. President*.....Prof. A. J. Bell, Victoria College.

*President*.....Prof. N. W. De Witt, Victoria College.

*Vice-President*.....Mr. D. A. Glassey, Harbord Coll. Inst.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Chas. L. Barnes, Jarvis Coll. Inst.

*Councillors*.....Prof. Robertson, Prof. G. Oswald Smith, Mr. P. F. Munro, Mr. J. H. Mills, Mr. A. E. Coombs, Mr. W. J. Salter.

The Section then enjoyed Mr. J. S. Bennett's paper on "Battlefields in France in Caesar's Day and Ours."

At the conclusion, on motion of Prof. Milner, seconded by Dr. Strang, the thanks of the meeting were tendered Mr. Bennett.

On suggestion of the President, seconded by Prof. Hutton, full consideration of Mr. Bouis' motion was deferred until after the next paper. This subject was then taken up, being a discussion on the question, "To What Extent Is the Teaching of Classics, Especially Latin, in the Schools of the Province, in the Hands of Teachers Adequately Prepared?"

The discussion was opened by Mr. Bryan. Prof. E. A. Dale, of Queen's University, followed. Mr. Lyman C. Smith, of Cornwall, concluded the proceedings. The three papers were recognized as valuable contributions, from their respective points of view. The impression left was that the teachers of Latin, as a rule, were doing good work, often excellent work, in spite of most discouraging conditions in many schools.

Professor Hutton, seconded by Mr. Salter, then moved that the new Executive be authorized and urged to take all necessary steps to protect the interests of classics in the secondary schools of the Province, whether by education of the public through the medium of the newspapers, or by any other means offering; the Executive to have power to call in for consultation and assistance any other members of the Association whose services they might wish to use, and to lose no time in taking all necessary steps.

This motion was felt to include that of Mr. Bouis. Prof. Sissons then urged that the necessity of prompt and vigorous action on their part be impressed on the Executive, and was sustained in this by the Section.

The Secretary then moved the appointment of a committee to consult with the Executive of other Sections, with a view to united action towards framing a proposed new curriculum for High Schools; such new curriculum to be considered by all the Sections, and to be ready for presentation and discussion in the College and Secondary Schools Section next Easter.

Professor Hutton approved of this motion, suggesting, however, that the Executive be empowered and instructed to deal with this question also. This was carried.

The Section then adjourned for the year.

CHAS. L. BARNES,  
*Secretary.*



## *MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.*

The 1917 session of the Mathematical and Physical Section of the Ontario Educational Association began on Tuesday, April 10th, with the registration of members at 9.30. At 9.45 the President, W. J. Lougheed, M.A., took the chair. On motion, the minutes of the 1916 Section were taken as read, and the Treasurer's statement, showing a balance on hand of \$118.52, was adopted.

The President then addressed the Section on "The Relation of Mathematics to Life," and, on motion of Messrs. Crawford and Wightman, it was resolved to give this paper a place in the Annual Report of the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association.

The next number of the programme was contributed by Miss H. M. Thompson, of Welland, on the topic, "How I Get Pupils to Do Deductions." Miss Thompson indicated several interesting devices, and explained how she appealed to the fighting instinct to rouse determination to overcome the difficulties. In thanking Miss Thompson, the President noted that this was the first occasion on which a lady had contributed to the programme of this Section.

In the absence of J. F. McDonald, B.A., the next number, "The Normal Entrance Geometry of 1916," was dealt with by G. V. McLean of Napanee, who pointed out that candidates had been confused as to relative importance of parts because of division into sections A, B, C; that part (b) of (2) was lacking in definiteness; that Question 3 did not belong to a Geometry paper, and that no question on Book V. appeared, thus encouraging the neglect of that Book. The one commendable feature of the paper was that it discouraged mere memorization. In conclusion, Mr. McLean advocated deductions as a bonus, and a question on the History of Geometry.

The meeting then adjourned.

### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

Following further registration of members, the election of officers resulted as follows:

*Hon. President* . . . . J. T. Crawford, B.A.

*President* . . . . . R. C. Rose, B.A.

*Vice-President*.....G. W. Rudlen, B.A.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Charles Auld, B.A.

*Councillors*.....S. H. Henry, M.A.; R. N. Merritt, B.A.; W. L. Sprung, M.A.; T. Kennedy, M.A.; B. W. Clarke, B.A.

*Representative on Board of Directors*.....C. Auld, B.A.

The first paper of this morning, "Magic Properties of Numbers," by A. H. D. Ross, M.A., illustrated by a series of interesting charts, dealt with many "magic" arrangements of the ordinary numbers in triangles, squares and polygons, and with the historic origin of number system, from simple integers to transcendental and other complex number forms. The Section showed its appreciation of Mr. Ross' effort by ordering his paper printed in the Annual Report of the Ontario Educational Association. (See page 362.)

Mr. E. J. Wethey, of Carleton Place, in a paper on "Lower School Arithmetic," pointed out that the difficulties of many pupils arose from imperfect reading, from cumbersome methods of calculation, and from lack of ability to judge of the reasonableness of results.

Mr. E. T. White's discussion of the "Deficiencies of Normal Entrance Students" emphasized the failure of pupils to check over results, weakness in mental arithmetic, and of power to do problems except by aid of type problems.

The concluding number of the year's programme, a lecture on "Recent Advances in Physics," by Dr. J. C. MacLennan, of Toronto University, was highly appreciated by the members of the Mathematical and Physical and Natural Science Sections.

The sessions of 1917 were closed by adjournment.

CHARLES AULD,  
*Secretary.*

*MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.*

The eleventh annual meeting of the English and History Section of the Ontario Educational Association was held in Room 57, University College, University of Toronto, on April 10, 1917, at 9.30 a.m.

The President, Prof. M. W. Wallace, occupied the chair.

On motion, the minutes of the last annual meeting, as printed in the Proceedings, were taken as read.

The Secretary was appointed Press Representative.

Moved by Mr. G. M. Jones, seconded by Mr. J. A. Carlyle, that the Nominating Committee for the officers of next year be the President, Vice-President, Director and Secretary. Carried.

The President then delivered an inspiring address on "The Effect of the War on Our National Life." He referred to the greater ferment of thought that is bound to result, and to the economic upheavals and struggles that will follow. Then he laid stress upon the duty of educators in guiding the future. Teachers must have wider interests and horizons and not be content to be mere employees. They must be interested in education rather than in subjects to be taught, and must be optimistic in developing the spiritual rather than the material.

A very suggestive paper on "Some Aspects of the Teaching of Composition" was read by Miss J. Thomas, M.A. The speaker referred to the folly of impressing a plan on the young writers. Other topics discussed were the intense value of personal interviews with pupils in order to explain their errors, the value of impromptu oral work; the importance of setting familiar topics before the pupils; the lack of time allotted to Composition teachers, with the result that these teachers have intolerable burdens in reading and correcting essays. (See page 378.)

Considerable discussion followed, in which Messrs. Jones, Stubbs, Carlyle, VanEvery, Hanna, and Miss Burriss took part.

The President then referred to the inability of Prof. Kennedy to deliver his address on "Some Ideals of Education," due to his serious illness.

On motion of Mr. Jones, seconded by Prof. Wrong, the report of the History Committee appointed in 1915 was adopted. This report recommended that in the Honour Matriculation examination, History be made a necessary subject for those entering the Honour Courses of Classics or Modern Languages.

Moved by Prof. Wrong, seconded by Mr. Jones, that the same Committee on History be authorized to interview the proper authorities as to the proposals embodied in the report. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The meeting opened at 10 a.m. with Prof. Wallace in the chair.

The report of the Nominating Committee was then presented and adopted, as follows:

*President*.....James Keillor, B.A.

*Vice-President*.....Miss M. N. Burriss, B.A.

*Secretary-Treasurer* J. F. VanEvery, B.A.

*Director*.....Prof. W. E. Macpherson.

*Councillors*.....Mr. J. A. Carlyle, B.A.; Mr. L. J. Pettit, B.A.;  
Mr. G. M. Jones, B.A.; Miss M. H.  
O'Donoghue, B.A.

Moved by Mr. J. A. Carlyle, seconded by Mr. J. Keillor, that a committee of five be appointed by the Executive to discuss ways and means of teaching English composition, so as to lighten the intolerable burdens now weighing heavily upon the teachers of Composition in our High Schools, and that this committee report one year hence. Carried.

The topic of "The War, Liberty and Democracy" was then the subject of a very thoughtful paper read by Prof. W. S. Milner. In a critical and kindly way the writer referred to the shortcomings of democracy—its fatalism, civic cowardice, class bitterness, parasitism, and autocracy.

Prof. O. D. Skelton then addressed the meeting on "Economic Factors in the History of Canada." He emphasized the need of pointing out to boys and girls of our schools the importance of land



colonization schemes in Canada; of the ways in which railways, canals and good roads have developed our federation, and how other economic factors in our development may be made interesting. (See page 373.)

The balance of the forenoon was devoted to a joint meeting with the League of Empire in Room 12. The President of the League, Principal Hutton, presided, and introduced the next speaker, Archdeacon Cody. He chose as his topic "Nationality and the War," and explained the force of the various Balkan nationalities engaged in the present struggle. (See page 376.)

The meeting then adjourned.

J. F. VAN EVERY,  
*Secretary.*

## MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The Commercial Section of the Ontario Educational Association met on the above date in Room 19 of Toronto University. Mr. T. W. Oates, London, President, in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The following committees were then appointed:

*Nominating Committee*.....Mr. Squire, Miss Cragg,  
Mrs. Ford-Firby.  
*Auditing Committee*.....Mr. Birchard, Miss File.  
*Examination and Revising Committee*...Mr. Shurtleff, Mr. Seigley,  
Miss Doherty.

The President's address was the next item on the programme, and was much enjoyed. Mr. Oates pointed out the importance of commercial education in our Province at present, and how necessary it is that the course should be a thorough one. (See page 385.)

In the absence of Mr. Clark, his paper, "How I Teach Junior Shorthand," was ably read by Miss Watterworth. Considerable discussion followed on the different methods employed in the teaching of the subject. (See page 397.)

Mr. Bailey was not present, and his paper was postponed until the following day at 11 o'clock.

Mr. Ward was asked to deal with the Question Drawer, and a live discussion, led by Mr. Ward, took place on the different difficulties that are daily confronting the teacher.

#### APRIL 11TH.

The meeting opened at 9.00 a.m., and the programme proceeded as follows:

Reports of Committees—These were found to be satisfactory.

Miss Cragg, Woodstock, dealt with the “Correlation of Book-keeping and Business Law.”

A paper on “Methods in Senior Shorthand” was given by Mr. Baird, Toronto. (See page 390.)

The following officers were elected for the coming year:

*President* . . . . . Mr. T. W. Oates, London.

*Vice-President* . . . . . Miss G. M. Watterworth, Orillia.

*Secretary-Treasurer* Miss M. Doherty, Stratford.

*Councillors* . . . . . Mr. Shurtliff, Miss File, Mr. R. B. Hare, Miss Tanner, Mr. E. C. Srigley, Miss Mallory.

*Representative to the College and High School Department, and to the Board of Directors* . . Mr. Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Paed, Toronto.

Moved by Mr. Srigley, seconded by Miss Mallory, that the papers read before this Section of the Association be published in the Report. Carried.

Miss Tanner, St. Thomas, then outlined the method she follows in the teaching of Typewriting. Miss Tanner, for the greater part of the year, puts the emphasis on *accuracy*, speed coming second. An enthusiastic discussion followed.

Mr. Bailey, Toronto, gave a most interesting address on “The New Ontario Writing Course, and How to Use It.” Mr. Bailey impressed upon his hearers the necessity of carefully following the suggestions contained in the Manual, if results are to be achieved in the use of the new Writing Course. Judging by the large number present to listen to Mr. Bailey’s address, the teachers are keenly alive to the importance of the subject.

The meeting then adjourned.

(Miss) A. B. STONE,  
*Secretary.*

*MINUTES OF CONTINUATION SECTION.*

APRIL 10TH, 1917.

Meeting was called to order at 10.45 a.m., with the President in the chair. Owing to the lateness of the hour, the order was changed, and Mr. Stevenson was called on for his address. Then followed the President's address on the school outlook after the war, which was very well received.

Mr. Judge was appointed press reporter.

Miss Rice and Miss Echardt were appointed auditors.

Meeting adjourned.

Afternoon session called at 2 p.m.

After Mr. Hoag's interesting address, Dean H. T. J. Coleman addressed the Section on "National Ideals in Education."

On motion of D. E. Smith and G. A. Clarke, a vote of thanks was tendered to Messrs. Stevenson and Coleman, with instructions that their addresses be published in the Report.

The following Nominating Committee was appointed: The President, the Secretary, Miss Echardt, Miss Vandusen, Miss Crummer.

APRIL 11TH.

Owing to sparse attendance, Dr. Braithwaite's address was dispensed with.

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*MINUTES OF HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.*

The annual meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association was held in the West Hall of Toronto University at 10 a.m. Wednesday, April 11th, 1917.

A. P. Gundry, B.A., of Galt, was elected Chairman of the Section on account of the death of the President, Mr. T. Murray, B.A., of Owen Sound.

In thanking the Section for his appointment, Mr. Gundry paid an eloquent tribute to the late President. He also spoke feelingly of the late Principal Redditt, of Barrie, and Principal Steele, of Orangeville.

On motion of F. P. Gavin, B.A., of Windsor, and A. E. Coombes, M.A., B.Paed., of St. Catharines, the new President and the Secretary were instructed to draft resolutions of sympathy and forward them to the families of the deceased, after making a record of the same in the minutes. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The Secretary-Treasurer, G. H. Reed, M.A., North Toronto, presented the financial report, which showed a credit balance of \$13.17.

The first subject, "Should the Annual Report be Based on the Academic Rather than on the Calendar Year?" was taken up by R. A. Gray, B.A., of Oakwood Collegiate Institute. The present method of estimating the attendance by calendar year swells the total attendance, but yields a low average. This gives a wrong idea of actual attendance and serves as the basis of incorrect conclusions in regard to the High Schools. He would have the Financial Report based on the calendar year and the Attendance on the academic. He advised that a strong deputation wait on the Minister in regard to the matter.

On motion of A. E. Coombs, seconded by F. P. Gavin, R. A. Gray and the Secretary were appointed a committee, with power to add to their number, to interview the Minister with the object of having the desired change effected.

A Nominating Committee was then appointed, consisting of C. A. Mayberry, J. D. Dickson, A. W. Burt, A. E. Coombs and F. P. Gavin.

J. H. Dolan, B.A., Oshawa, took up the subject of "Irregular Attendance." The causes of this evil he held to be due either to the slackness of the home in this regard or to the carelessness of the pupil himself. He advocated giving a bonus of 3 per cent. at the term examinations for regular attendance, apart from sickness, and conferring with the parents in regard to the matter. Steadiness and persistence in dealing with the evil must be the chief remedy.

E. O. Sliter, B.A., said he kept a blacklist of students irregular in attendance, and placed them under special discipline.

A. H. McDougall, B.A., LL.D., of Ottawa, would see the parents and show to them that there was an actual cash value in regular attendance.



J. D. Christie, B.A., Simeoe, who also was to have spoken on this subject, wrote the Secretary some months before that, through ill-health, he had been granted leave by his School Board to spend some time in the Southern States to recuperate. He regretted very much his inability to be present and meet with his fellow-teachers, whom he esteemed so highly.

E. O. Sliter, M.A., of Kingston, spoke on "The Attitude of the Staff Towards School Sports." (See page 401.)

The sports, he said, developed in the pupils fair play, a good spirit under defeat, a healthy tone in the school, and better relations between teachers and pupils.

The staff should exercise control of the sports in order to ensure proper care. The teacher in charge should act as financial manager of the school teams, should direct practice, and select the team. The boys, however, should choose their own captain.

The boy who neglected his studies, or who violated the rules of the school, should be debarred from playing on the team.

On motion of R. A. Gray, Mr. Sliter's paper was ordered to be printed.

A. W. Burt, B.A., of Brantford, dealt with the subject, "Means Taken to Secure Proper Division of Home-Work Time."

The difficulty in securing a proper division of the time he held to be due to two chief causes. Either some energetic and forceful teacher gives too much home-work and sees that it is done, or some skilful teacher, relying mainly on the lesson in the school, may be careless in insisting on home-work.

No general rules on the matter can be laid down. He would recommend, in a moderate way, study-periods, alternating with lesson-periods. Optional subject periods might be thus used under the supervision, of course, of some teacher.

The best cure would be fewer subjects on the programme and fewer pupils in a class.

Home-work should be largely a review or research work.

C. A. Mayberry brought in the report of the Nominating Committee. The report was adopted. As a result, the following were elected as officers for the next year:

*President*.....Arthur P. Gundry, B.A., Galt Collegiate Institute.

*Secretary-Treasurer* George H. Reed, M.A., B.Paed., North Toronto High School.

*Councillors*.....J. H. Dolan, B.A., Oshawa High School; W. B. Wyndham, B.A., Oakville High School; Geo. F. Rogers, B.A., London Collegiate Institute.

The following are the letters of sympathy which were ordered to be drafted and placed in the minutes. Copies of the same have been forwarded to the families of the deceased.

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

*Dear Mrs. Murray and Family:*

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of this Province.

Mr. Murray rose very rapidly to the front rank of his profession. He was known far and wide, not only as one of the very best teachers, but also as one of the most respected and capable Principals.

At the time of his death he was President of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, and had at different times occupied other positions in the Association.

In his sudden death the Province has lost one of its leading educationalists, the teaching profession one of its most gifted members, the Principals their most efficient and popular Chairman.

Individually, many of us mourn a true friend and good comrade. It will be long before his place can be even partially filled, either in the community where he lived, the Association to which he belonged, or in the hearts of the friends he made wherever he went.

His was the strong, courageous and kindly nature of a leader of men, and we feel we can ill afford to lose him, but "His will be done."

In the trust that God may comfort you,

I am yours very sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,  
Ontario Educational Association.*

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

*Dear Mrs. Steele and Family:*

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of the Province.

For many years Mr. Steele occupied a foremost place in his profession; he was recognized as an eminent educationalist, not only by the High School teachers, but by the general public as well. He had been honoured by his associates in the profession by election to every office within their organization, including that of President of the Ontario Educational Association, in which representative position he brought honour and respect from the general public to the class he represented.

For thirty-six years he had been the honoured Principal of one of the best-managed and most successful High Schools in the Province. Pupils of his are everywhere, and everywhere by them his fame as a teacher has been spread.

The High School Principals desire to express their appreciation of his work as a Principal, their respect for his learning and broad-mindedness, their pleasure at knowing him intimately as a colleague, their gratitude for his many acts of kindness towards them personally, and their grief that he will no more occupy his long-familiar and prominent place in their Association.

Many also mourn him as a personal friend of many years' standing, and these, who knew him most intimately, feel his loss most keenly.

Trusting Divine Providence will comfort and sustain you,

I am yours most sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,  
Ontario Educational Association.*

TORONTO, APRIL 30TH, 1917.

*Dear Mrs. Redditt and Family:*

At the recent meeting of the High School Principals' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, I was instructed by resolution of the members to write to you to express their sympathy with you and the high esteem in which your late husband was held by his friends and colleagues, the Principals of the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of this Province.

In the death of Mr. Redditt the Province has lost a teacher who, in a marked degree, moulded the character of the youth of the country.

His passing is an irreparable loss, especially to Barrie and district; his long and successful Headmastership of Barrie Collegiate Institute is a brilliant testimony of his capability as an educationalist.

By many Mr. Redditt was regarded as an ideal Head Master. His polished manner and the dignity of his bearing had a very decided influence for good upon all his pupils. His love of truth was a dominant feature; no consideration of fear or favor ever made him deviate in the slightest from what he believed to be right.

He was one of those independent spirits who often run counter to public opinion, and often he was not understood by those who did not know him well.

He was one of the wittiest of men, and his sense of humor was intensely keen. Combined with these qualities, he had a kindly and sympathetic nature, ready at all times to advise and assist his



students, and yet at the same time has was a rigid disciplinarian, whose decision was always right, and which, once made, was irrevocable.

In the years to come his name will be closely identified with the highest and best educational influences of the Province.

With the prayer that God may abundantly bless you,

I am yours sincerely,

GEO. H. REED,

*Secretary High School Principals' Section,  
Ontario Educational Association.*

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#### MINUTES OF SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPT.

THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1917.

The annual meeting was held in Room 11, University of Toronto, with the President, Wm. Prenderfast, B.A., B.Paed., in the chair.

The minutes of previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The President nominated Inspector Denyes to act as Press Representative.

Messrs. Moore, Marshall, White and Walks were appointed a Nominating Committee.

The President then gave an address on "The Linguistic Proclivities of the Teacher-in-Training."

Dr. Coleman, Dr. Putman and Inspectors Standing, McCool and Denyes took part in the discussion.

Messrs. J. W. Marshall and E. T. White presented the report of the Nominating Committee, and the following officers were elected:

*President* . . . . . G. G. McNab, M.A., Renfrew.

*Vice-President* . . . . . N. McDougall, B.A., Petrolea.

*Secretary-Treasurer* S. Silcox, D.Paed., Stratford.

On motion of Dr. Putman and G. G. McNab, Dr. Coleman, Queen's University, was appointed representative of the Supervising

and Training Department on Standing Committee, on Legislation and Discipline.

Inspector Craig of Kemptville and Mr. E. T. White of London delivered able addresses on the subject, "Is the Ontario Public School Meeting the Public Needs?" Inspector Craig pointed out that the Public School should promote the physical, intellectual and emotional development of the pupils, and should provide training for vocational life and for citizenship. In most of these respects the Public School was meeting the public needs very inadequately.

(For Mr. White's paper, see page 411.)

Discussion was entered into by Inspectors Marshall, Standing, Dr. Putman, Green and Stevens.

Two very interesting and carefully prepared addresses were then given by Inspector Edwards, London, and Dr. Silcox, Stratford, on the subject: "How Can the Normal School Staffs and the Public and Separate School Inspectors Co-operate in a More Useful Way than at Present?" (See page 405.)

Dr. Silcox emphasized the following points:

1. Normal School Masters and Inspectors should meet as frequently as possible.
2. Inspectors should visit the Normal Schools.
3. Normal School Masters should visit rural schools.
4. Extension work should be carried on throughout Normal School districts by Normal School Masters and Inspectors.
5. Women's Institutes should be organized.

Dr. Putman and Dr. Coleman took part in the discussion.

Some discussion took place on the matter of having a longer meeting of the Supervising and Training Dept., and it was arranged that the Executives of the Department and Sections concerned should deal with the matter with a view to having more time allowed for the meeting of the Supervising and Training Department.

G. G. McNAB,

*Secretary.*

*MINUTES OF INSPECTORS' SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH.

In the absence of President Marshall, Inspector Maxwell was unanimously appointed as temporary Chairman.

The meeting was opened with devotional exercises by the Chairman.

On motion of Inspectors Michell and Jordan, a committee consisting of the mover and seconder, together with Inspectors Maxwell and Burgess, was appointed to draft a resolution of condolence, to be sent to the families of deceased members of the Inspectors' Section.

At this stage Inspector Forester was introduced by Inspector Michell, and Inspector Corkill by Inspector Johnson.

Inspector Conn was appointed Press Reporter, and Inspectors Power and Kilmer were appointed Auditors. The minutes of the 1916 meeting were read and approved.

The following committees were appointed:

*On Resolutions*—Messrs. Summerby, Conn and Maxwell.

*On Nominations*—Messrs. Mulloy, Denyes and Johnson.

Inspector Chapman, of Toronto, then presented his paper on "Civics." Discussion followed by Inspector Jordan. (See page 440.)

On motion of Messrs. Michell and Jordan, it was decided to publish Inspector Chapman's paper on "Civics." At this stage the President arrived and took the chair.

Then followed the President's address, in which he made reference to the Gary schools. Discussion followed by Messrs. Hoag and Mills. (See page 415.)

## AFTERNOON SESSION.

Dr. F. W. Merchant gave his paper on "The Training of the Teacher as a Phase of the Inspector's Work." Discussion followed by Messrs. Slemon, Jordan, Chisholm, McCool, Mulloy, and Stevens. On motion, it was resolved to have Dr. Merchant's paper printed in the Minutes. (See page 418.)

At this stage two new members were introduced—Inspector Robinson, of Wentworth, by Dr. Putman, and Separate School Inspector Lee, by Inspector Michell.

Inspector Denyes, of Halton, then presented his paper on "Uniform Promotion Examinations." Discussion followed by Messrs. Kilmer, Lees, Campbell, Houston and Thompson.

WEDNESDAY, A.M., APRIL 11TH.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

*President*.....Dr. Putman, Ottawa.

*Secretary*.....Inspector J. F. Power, Toronto.

*Director*.....Inspector C. W. Mulloy, Aurora.

On motion of Messrs. Moore and Scovell, it was decided that the Secretary of this Association should in future be paid the sum of \$10 a year for his services, and that this payment should also be made for 1916.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and Smith (Stratford), it was decided that we should pay any incidental expenses incurred by our representative on the official Board of the Supervising and Training Department.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and Michell, it was agreed that Dr. Putman should be the Inspectors' nominee on the Pension Board Commission.

On motion of Inspector Rogers, of Toronto, seconded by Inspector Lees, it was unanimously resolved that, "As this Section of the Ontario Educational Association represents interests of the largest import to the State, and as the experience of the members of this Department has been wide and intensive and obtained through fires of difficulty, and as the needs of this Department require that means should be adopted to impress its importance on all who are concerned therein, it is desirable to take immediate and persistent steps to that end. Be it, therefore, resolved that a committee (consisting of Inspectors Thompson, McNab and the mover and seconder of this resolution) be appointed to consider and report ways and means by which the interests and influence of this Section may be promoted and extended."

Inspector Payment then gave his paper on "The Rise and Progress of Mathematics." On motion, it was decided to have the paper printed in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 431.)



Inspector Day, of Orillia, then gave his address on "School Fairs." Discussion followed by Messrs. Smith (Chatham), Craig and Thompson.

On resolution, it was decided to appoint a committee consisting of Inspectors Smith, Day and Putman, to interview the Superintendent of Education regarding certain changes in the school agricultural forms required by the Department.

On motion of Messrs. Lees and Seovell, it was decided that the Teachers' Institutes in rural inspectorates might conveniently be held, part of them one week and the remaining part another week.

Inspector Kilmer, of Brantford, then read his paper on "The Inspector's Relation to the Junior High School Entrance Examination." Discussion followed by Messrs. Gill, Maxwell and Thompson.

#### WEDNESDAY, P.M..

Inspector Summerby gave an interesting address on "Old County Boards and County Teachers Before Confederation."

#### THURSDAY A.M., APRIL 12TH.

The following report was presented by the Committee on Resolutions:

"Moved by D. A. Maxwell, seconded by A. A. Jordan, That this Convention of Public and Separate School Inspectors, now assembled for their annual conference, desires to place on record its appreciation of the splendid services rendered to the cause of education by the late Inspectors N. W. Campbell, of South Grey, D. A. Nesbitt, of Lennox and Addington, W. H. Hallett, of Temiskaming, William MacIntosh, of North Hastings, and J. J. Tilley, formerly Inspector of Model Schools, and that the Secretary of this Association convey our deep sympathy to the members of the families thus bereaved.

Signed by the Committee,

D. A. MAXWELL,  
F. L. MICHELL,  
A. A. JORDAN,  
H. H. BURGESS."

It was moved by Dr. Putman, seconded by Inspector Maxwell, that in future the total fee of this Section be \$1.00. The motion carried.

It was moved by Inspector McNab, seconded by Inspector Forster, that the deficit in the expense of the annual dinner held in the Faculty of Education Building be paid from the funds of this Section, but that such action shall not be taken as a precedent.

The Auditors reported that they had examined the accounts of the Secretary-Treasurer and found them correct. They also reported a balance to the credit of the Section amounting to \$125.70.

On motion of Messrs. Thompson and McCool, it was decided to appoint Messrs. Marshall, McNab, Jordan, Powers and Putman a Committee to wait on the Minister to urge upon him the need of re-adjusting the salaries of rural inspectors.

On motion, the Section adjourned to meet again in 1918.

J. H. PUTMAN,  
*Secretary.*

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### MINUTES OF THE TRAINING SECTION.

TORONTO, APRIL 9TH, 1917.

The Training Section of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. on the above date, in Room 65, in the University of Toronto, with the President, A. Stevenson, B.A., London, in the chair. In the absence of the Secretary, Mr. J. A. Irwin, Toronto, M. A. Sorsoleil, B.A., Toronto, was appointed Secretary *pro tem*.

The minutes of the last annual meeting were read and confirmed.

On motion, the President and Secretary were appointed a Committee to confer with the Inspectors' Section concerning the nomination for the Presidency of the Association.

G. W. Hofferd, M.A., London, presented an excellent paper on "The Value of Hygiene as a School Study." The speaker emphasized the need of continuing the subject of Hygiene as a part of the Lower School Science Course.

Mr. J. Lewis, of the *Toronto Star*, read a very practical paper on the subject, "Educational Aims." The words of appreciation

expressed by Mr. Dearness and the vote of thanks proposed by the same speaker were heartily endorsed.

APRIL 11TH, 1917.

A. Stevenson, B.A., London, President, addressed the Section on "A Twentieth Century Grammar." The President traced the changes in successive grammar texts, and pointed out the need of simplification to meet the changes in modern speech. (See page 451.)

Mr. Sorsoleil read a paper on "The Student in the Practice Teaching School." On resolution, it was decided to have the President's address and the paper by Mr. Sorsoleil published in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 444.)

The following officers were elected for 1918:

*President*.....H. J. Crawford, B.A., Toronto.

*Secretary-Treasurer* M. A. Sorsoleil, B.A., Toronto.

*Directors*.....W. E. Macpherson, B.A., Kingston; D. Eagle, Windsor.

As a result of the discussion on the paper read by Mr. Hofferd on the previous day, it was moved by Mr. John Dearness, and seconded by W. J. Chisholm, M.A., "That in the opinion of the Training Section, the course in Biology in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes should be modified in such a way as to make room for the inclusion of a practical course of instruction on the functions of the body, without adding to the quantity of work now required." The motion was carried.

The Section then adjourned to the Physics Building, where J. T. Crawford, B.A., Toronto, gave a most interesting lecture, illustrated with lantern slides, on the subject, "The Old and the New in Arithmetic."

At 6 o'clock the members of the Supervising and Training Department met at an informal banquet at the U. T. S., where a most enjoyable hour was spent.

APRIL 12TH, 1917.

The Training Section met with the Supervising and Training Department.

M. A. SORSOLEIL,  
*Secretary.*

# MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 10TH, 1917.

The annual meeting of Trustees of the Province of Ontario was held for this year in the University building. The first session was held at 2 p.m., with Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls, in the chair.

Rev. James Buchanan, Elmvale, opened the meeting with prayer.

Sixty-two members registered the first afternoon.

Communications were read from Messrs. W. A. Parks, Secretary Royal Ontario Museum; J. S. Davis, Smithville; W. D. Graham, Arnprior; W. C. Wilkinson, Secretary Board, Toronto; R. H. Wallace, Meaford; R. Clark, Merritton.

Moved by Mr. Ormiston, and seconded by Mr. J. H. Laughton, that all correspondence be filed, and Secretary be instructed to write the Secretary of the Ontario Museum, thanking him for the invitation extended to the meeting to pay a visit to the Museum. Carried.

## TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

### *Receipts.*

Balance brought forward.....	\$73 40
Membership fees .....	130 25
Total.....	<hr/> \$208 65

### *Disbursements.*

General Secretary .....	\$36 00
Railways .....	15 75
Printing .....	9 25
Secretary—Disbursements and allowances.....	108 85
Balance .....	38 80
Total.....	<hr/> \$208 65

Moved by Messrs. Ormiston and Waugh, that the Treasurer's report be received and referred to the Auditors. Carried.



Moved by Messrs. Buchanan and Wright, that Messrs. Ormiston and Waugh be appointed Auditors, to report on Wednesday morning. Carried.

Messrs. Brenner, McNee and Doolittle were appointed the members of the Press Committee.

The appointment of delegates to the Educational Department was laid over until Wednesday morning.

The question of how best to proceed in the matter of the election of officers was discussed, and it was finally agreed to lay it over until Wednesday morning.

The minutes as printed in the Proceedings of the General Association were adopted.

President, Dr. E. H. Wickware, delivered his address. (See page 457.)

A committee, consisting of Messrs. J. J. Mistele, H. H. Goodfellow, C. S. Birtch, E. Gregory and W. A. Brenner, was named to deal with the President's address, and bring in a report at as early a time as possible.

At 3 p.m., Mr. D. L. Sprague, Director of Technical Education, Hamilton, delivered an able address on Technical Education, which was attentively listened to and appreciated. The speaker's knowledge of the subject was presented in a very clear and instructive manner, and brought forth many enquiries at the close of his delivery of the address, which gave him an opportunity of explaining points of interest brought forth in the address. Among the many questions asked relative to the subject were: "The standpoint of the taxpayer," "The matter of preparedness in life's work of pupils who are now leaving Public and High Schools and journeying through life and end in the blind alley, finally," "The percentage of pupils leaving schools without such qualifications which could be remedied by Technical School work," "How to work out the problem in rural schools with lady teachers," "As to Manual, Technical and Industrials Schools, and the work being done by them respectively." "The age of pupils" was considered as to when to start Manual Training and Technical School classes. The question, "Would the extension

of age limit (by adding another year to school age) help out in solving the problem?" "Solving the problem in the Province of Manitoba by the Consolidated School System." (See page 465.)

The Secretary suggested that a good working committee be appointed to consider the various phases of the question, and report to the 1918 meeting.

Evidence of the successful working out of Manual Training Schools where they are established was given by representatives from such schools.

It was moved by Messrs. Laughton and Doolittle, that this Department thank the speaker for his splendid address, and that a synopsis of it be published in our Proceedings, and that the Press Committee be given particulars of the address. Carried.

The mover and seconder referred to the very great importance of dealing with the question, and urged the meeting that steps should be taken to gather all the information possible and bring it before the Trustee's Section at as early a date as possible, as there no doubt would be the greatest need of some such system being generally introduced into our present Ontario system of education. They referred to the noble work being done by our boys in the trenches, and said the Province of Ontario should provide means of instruction for those who upon returning might require assistance.

Dr. Merchant, Director of Industrial Schools, being present, the chairman invited the Doctor to address the meeting. The Doctor willingly complied with the request, and said, among other things, that he regretted very much that he was unable to be present to hear the address, but, knowing of the success attending Mr. Sprague's work in Hamilton, he knew the members present would be benefited by Mr. Sprague addressing the meeting, and referred to the part-time system introduced in Hamilton, saying it had worked out to good advantage. The Doctor willingly replied to many questions asked by the members.

It was moved by Messrs. Farewell and Davis, that a committee be appointed to take into consideration the matter of Vocational and Technical Training, and report at the next meeting of the Associa-

tion, with a recommendation for action upon the question, said committee to be composed of Messrs. J. H. Laughton, A. Werner, D. L. Sprague, A. Roberts, M. Parkinson, J. E. Farewell, J. S. Davis, Geo. E. Proctor and the President for 1918, J. B. Waugh.

The meeting adjourned, to meet on Wednesday at 9.15.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 11TH.

The second session was held this morning, beginning at 9.15 with the President, Dr. Wickware, in the chair.

The Secretary read the minutes of the previous meeting, which, upon motion by Messrs. Kirby and Schneider, were approved.

Notice of motion given by Mr. J. E. Farewell was held over until later on during the meeting.

The Auditors presented the following report:—

“We, the Auditors appointed, beg to report that we have audited the accounts of the Treasurer, and find the same correct.”

J. B. WAUGH,

W. S. ORMISTON.

Moved by Messrs. Waugh and Stewart, that the Auditors' report be adopted. Carried.

Messrs. Lee and Wright moved and seconded, that we appoint a Nominating Committee to deal with the nomination of officers for the ensuing year in the Trustees' Department, and that the matter of appointment of delegates to the Department of Education be made by this meeting as a whole. Carried.

The following six gentlemen were appointed the Nominating Committee by the President: Messrs. J. B. Waugh, S. Kirby, W. A. Brenner, A. McNee, W. S. Wright and J. J. Misteale.

The following gentlemen were elected by ballot as delegates to the Department of Education: Messrs. E. A. Doolittle, T. S. Kirby, J. G. Elliot and A. Roberts.

#### REPORT ON PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

Your Committee beg leave to report as follows:—

We desire to congratulate the President on the excellence of his address. His treatment of the different educational problems is, at

once sane, reasonable and progressive. In his preamble a fitting welcome was extended to all members, new and old, a cordial invitation was extended to all to take an active part in the discussion, to state their complaints and difficulties, and a promise made that all would receive consideration as far as time would permit. We are particularly pleased to note that a place has been given in the printed Programme for delegates to introduce any topic they may desire to have discussed.

Your Committee desires to give its general approval of the various opinions expressed on the different subjects dealt with in his address, and would call the attention of the delegates to the following:

1. The matter of adjusting the Public School curriculum.
2. The compulsory medical or dental inspection of all children in all schools.
3. Amendment to the Truancy Act, which shall place the truancy officer under the direct control of the School Board, but no adjusting of the age of compulsory attendance.
4. Compulsory military training.
5. School Fairs.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

J. J. MISTELE,  
C. S. BIRTCH,  
W. A. BRENNER,  
H. F. GOODFELLOW.

Moved by J. J. Mistele, seconded by Mr. W. A. Brenner, that the report be received. Carried.

At 10.10 a.m., Mr. G. W. Fluker, of Smith's Falls, gave an eloquent address on "Music in the Schools: Its Value and Influence."

It was moved by Rev. Mr. Buchanan, and seconded by Mr. Goulding, that we extend to Mr. Fluker our appreciation of his interesting, instructive and inspiring address, and that the paper be printed in our minutes and published in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association. Carried. (See page 469.)



Other members joined in with expressions of delight and extreme appreciation of the contents of the paper. Among others were Messrs. Elliot, of Kingston; Dr. Brown, Toronto; Dr. Waugh, Stratford, and Mr. Wright, St. Thomas.

At 11 a.m., Mr. T. Sidney Kirby, of Ottawa, gave a paper on the "Adolescent School Attendance Act." (See page 475.)

It was moved by Mr. Lee, of Hamilton, seconded by Mr. Proctor, of Sarnia, that the thanks of this Association be extended to Mr. Kirby for his able and practical address, and that the same be printed in our Minutes and published in the Proceedings. Carried.

The question of vital issue dealt with in the paper, the conditions after the war, and other matters considered by Mr. Kirby, were spoken to by Messrs. Roberts, Proctor and Ormiston.

The notice of motion given by Messrs. Farewell and J. S. Davis was, upon motion by above gentlemen, considered, and some additional names added, the following gentlemen to constitute the committee: Messrs. J. H. Laughton, London; A. Werner, Elmira; D. L. Sprague, Hamilton; T. Sydney Kirby, Ottawa; A. Roberts, St. Thomas; M. Parkinson, Toronto; J. B. Waugh, Stratford; J. E. Farewell, Whitby; J. S. Davis, Smithville; G. E. Proctor, Sarnia; Dr. Brown, Toronto. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned till 2.15 p.m.

#### WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

The meeting met promptly at 2.15 p.m., President Dr. E. H. Wickware in the chair.

#### NOMINATING COMMITTEE REPORT.

The Committee on Nominations recommended the following members as officers for the ensuing year:—

*President* ..... Dr. J. B. Waugh, Stratford.

*Vice-President* ..... C. S. Birtch, Ottawa.

*Director* ..... Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls.

*Secretary-Treasurer.* A. Werner, Elmira.

*Executive.* . . . . . Messrs. W. A. Brenner, St. Thomas; Lyman Lee, Hamilton; J. M. Amey, Drayton; W. J. Packham, Brampton; Chas. E. Kidd, Gananoque; E. D. Lang, Kitchener; J. S. Davis, Smithville.

Moved by Mr. Kirby, and seconded by Mr. Stewart, that the report of the Nominating Committee be approved and adopted. Carried.

#### RE TRUANCY ACT.

The question of the consideration of the Truancy Act in the report of the Committee under Section 3, was generally discussed. Among others, the following gentlemen spoke: Messrs. Farewell, Elliot, Davis, Laschinger, Mistele, Dr. Brown, Morris, and Inspector Taylor, but no action was taken thereon at this particular time.

#### RE DRILL INSTRUCTION IN COMMITTEE'S REPORT.

It was moved by Mr. Lee, seconded by Mr. Foster, that this Association memorialize the Department of Education to amend the regulation requiring that a drill instructor in Collegiate Institutes and High Schools hold a specialist's certificate, so that it shall not apply to a Collegiate Institute or High School where the drill instructor devotes his whole time to drill instruction and physical culture. Carried.

Dr. Hunter, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, being present, addressed the meeting on school difficulties and problems in the city, and suggested that, among other things, the appointment of some organization to be known as the "Teachers' Council," who could render great assistance in the administration of school affairs.

Mr. Vokes, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, had previously extended a hearty invitation to the members to pay a visit to their Administration Building, on College Street, and now renewed the invitation, asking the members to meet the Toronto Board at their building on Thursday, at 2 p.m.

The meeting thanked the members of the Toronto Board for the kind invitation.

(A number of the members accepted the invitation, and spent a pleasant time with them.)

At 3.35 p.m., a joint meeting with Inspectors, to hear a paper by Dr. Wallace Seccombe, on "School Dentistry." Unfortunately, the Doctor had contracted a very heavy cold, and Mr. J. G. Elliot, of Kingston, kindly consented to read the address. (See page 511.)

It was moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Tracy, that a vote of thanks be extended to the Doctor for his able paper, and that it be printed in the Minutes. Carried.

Various phases of the Doctor's paper brought out questions from Members:—

Mr. Kilmer, Brantford—As to opposition by parents.

Mr. Gibb, Blenheim—As to Normal School. Instructions to be given to teachers on some of the principal subjects.

Mr. Ormiston, Uxbridge—The difficulty of introducing the inspection by reason of cost.

Mr. Smith, Gravenhurst—Present provisions by Women's Institutes.

Mr. Laughton, London—The question resolves itself into an educative measure from the trustee standpoint, rather than a compulsory measure from the Department.

Mr. Putnam, Inspector, Ottawa—As to the success attending their efforts in Ottawa, and cost thereof.

Mr. Denyes, Inspector, Halton County, suggested that some literature could be prepared on the subject and distributed among the various inspectorates. It would be the means of bringing the attention of this matter to the School Boards.

Mr. Moriss—Some work could be done at all times by the teachers at present employed acting in conjunction with the trustees.

The matter was finally referred to the Legislative Committee to deal with it.

4.30. A paper by Col. J. E. Farewell, K.C., of Whitby, "Stop, Look, Listen." The Colonel, who has taken a deep interest in children's welfare all his life, and who has given much attention to

educational interests, and especially in the work of the Trustees' Section of the Association, gave a very interesting paper. See page 484.)

Moved by Mr. Wright, and seconded by Mr. Treacy, that the paper of Col. Farewell, "Stop, Look, Listen," be printed in the Proceedings, and that the meeting tender its hearty thanks for his able and timely advice and inspiring address. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Laughton and Wright, that provided a Legislative Committee is appointed by the General Association, Rev. J. Buchanan be named the representative on such committee from this Section.

Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston, addressed the meeting on the question of the great necessity of stimulating all efforts on increased production, showing how trustees can by their efforts help doing their bit in bringing it before the people.

Mr. Robb spoke in favor of bringing about increased production.

The President was asked to vacate the chair for a few minutes, and Mr. Laughton requested to occupy it, and the following motion was read:—

Moved by Mr. Roberts, seconded by Mr. Wright, that the Trustees' Department recommend the Department of Education to allow more laxity or flexibility in the Public School curriculum, so that on recommendation of School Boards and Public School Inspectors, if any subjects deemed more vital than another may be used, and any subject less important may be lessened or dropped altogether to make room for such adjustment.

Amendment: Moved by Mr. Davis, seconded by Mr. Lee, that the matter of adjustment of the Public School curriculum be left over in the meantime until the next meeting of the Association, and referred to the Technical School Committee. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Lee and Brenner, that this Section endorses the principle of Compulsory Cadet Military Training in our Public Schools and Collegiate Institutes and High Schools. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Henderson, seconded by Mr. Wright, that this Association of Trustees memorialist the Department of Education to have:

1. The Truancy Act changed so as to allow Public School Boards in cities, towns and villages to appoint their own truant officer.



2. The school age of admission be six years.

3. That once a pupil starts to school, they will come under the Truancy Act as long as they continue in school.

Clauses 1 and 3 carried.

Clause 2 lost.

Moved by Mr. Brenner, seconded by Mr. Mistele, that the report of the Committee on the President's Address be accepted as amended. Carried.

Mr. Laughton then vacated the chair, and President Wickware again filled the chair.

Moved by Mr. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Lee, that this Section deprecates the regulation of the Department of Education by which physical training will hereafter be carried out by the employment of male and female instructors. We recommend that the regulation for the present be left at the option of Boards of Education. Carried.

Meeting adjourned till Thursday, at 9.15 a.m.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 12TH.

The meeting opened sharp at 9.15 a.m., with President Dr. Wickware in the chair.

The minutes of the two previous meetings on Wednesday were read, and upon motion by Mr. Brenner and seconded by Mr. Stewart, were confirmed.

Moved by Mr. Lyman Lee, Hamilton, seconded by Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston, that in future sessions of this Trustees' Section of the Ontario Educational Association, Wednesday afternoon be devoted to consideration and discussion of matters relating to education in urban municipalities. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. G. Elliott, seconded by Mr. E. A. Doolittle, that the names of President Waugh and Secretary Werner be added to the Legislative Committee, and that the expenses of the delegation in meeting with the Department of Education be paid by this Section. Carried.

Committee: Messrs. E. A. Doolittle, Orillia; J. G. Elliott, Kingston; A. Roberts, St. Thomas; T. Sidney Kirby, Ottawa; Dr. Waugh, Stratford; A. Werner, Elmira.

At 10 a.m., Prof. O. J. Stevenson, O. A. C., Guelph, read an excellent paper on "Training of Teachers for Rural Schools." (See page 490.)

Moved by Rev. James Buchanan, seconded by Mr. W. J. Robb, that the thanks of this department be given to Prof. Stevenson for his helpful address, and that his paper be printed in the Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, and that permission of the Professor be obtained to publish and circulate the paper among the Trustee Boards of the Province. Carried.

Doctors Hodgson and Noble, Toronto Board of Education; Rev. Mr. Buchanan and others, in speaking on the contents of the paper, referred to the excellence of the paper and the many instructive references made therein bearing on the economic and social sides of life, and others referred to the way suggested by the Professor in which a remedy could be found, namely, by consolidating schools, special training, and by the extension system.

At 10.45 a paper on "Rural School Needs" was given by Mr. J. A. Taylor, Public School Inspector, St. Thomas and Elgin County.

Mrs. Courtice, a member of the Toronto Board of Education, who was visiting our Section this afternoon, said she regretted not being able to have been with us before, and expressed her pleasure in listening to the address given by Inspector Taylor.

Mr. Davis, of Smithville, Mr. Kidd, of Gananoque, and others, spoke of the excellence of the address.

Moved by Mr. Davis, seconded by Mr. Brenner, that the very able paper presented by Inspector Taylor, on "Rural School Needs," be printed in the Proceedings, and be circulated for the benefit of the trustees of the Province. Carried. (See page 503.)

Messrs. Robb and Brenner moved and seconded, that this Department of the Ontario Educational Association request the Department of Agriculture to make the question of Consolidated Schools a topic for discussion in the Farmers' Institutes by speakers appointed by the Government. Carried.

Col. Farewell suggested, and was endorsed by Mr. Robb, that the old Committee on Consolidated Schools be reappointed.

Moved by Mr. J. G. Elliot, seconded by Mr. Robb, that this Section endorse the efforts being made by the Government of Ontario

in seeking for greater food production in this the greatest and mightiest year of the War. It appreciates the zeal with which the Department of Education has entered into the campaign. As a Section of the Ontario Educational Association, the Trustees, seized with the demands for greater production, would urge upon the Boards throughout Ontario to aid to their utmost the growth of foodstuffs, so that famine may be overtaken and abundance be provided for Britain and her Allies in their titanic struggle. We suggest the co-ordination of the school, pupils and teachers, so that united work may be obtained in production, and, if necessary, we would approve a lengthening of the vacation time, so that the harvesting may be successful and complete. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Elliott, seconded by Mr. Brenner, that this Section expresses its appreciation of the work performed by Secretary Werner, and recommend the customary honorarium and expenses be paid to him. Carried.

President Wickware was asked to vacate the chair, which was taken by Mr. Elliott.

Moved by Mr. F. W. Wright, St. Thomas, seconded by Mr. Brenner, St. Thomas, that this Department, with gratification, expresses its pleasure at the splendid service rendered by its efficient President, Dr. Wickware, during the past year. We have appreciated his geniality, his courtesy and his abounding enthusiasm in the work of Education and Trustee. May he long continue a valued member of the Trustees' Section. Carried with hearty applause.

This concluded the work of the meeting, which closed by singing "God Save the King."

A. WERNER,  
*Secretary.*

# FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1916-17.

## RECEIPTS.

Balance from last statement.....	\$427 44
Membership fees .....	505 20
Ontario Government grant.....	1,400 00
Bank interest .....	26 51
Advertisements in programmes.....	60 00

## DISBURSEMENTS.

	\$2,419 15
Viseing railway certificates.....	\$45 25
Expenses of Convention.....	25 33
Balance of Supernannuation Com. expenses, 1915-16....	20 94
Music for Convention.....	25 65
Secretaries of Departments.....	40 00
General Secretary's salary.....	200 00
Treasurer's salary .....	50 00
Reporting annual meeting.....	39 00
Railway fares for Board of Directors.....	62 50
Printing circulars, letters, receipts, etc.....	39 95
Commission on advertisements in programmes.....	15 00
Postage for Secretary and Treasurer.....	17 16
Printing and distributing Proceedings.....	409 08
Printing and distributing Programmes.....	201 59
Supernannuation Co., 1916-17, secretarial work and post- age.....	298 00
Supernannuation Co., 1916-17, railway fares, telephone, etc.....	47 84
Balance .....	881 86

\$2,419 15

*Treasurer.*

H. WARD,

TORONTO, 11TH APRIL, 1917.

To R. W. DOAN, Esq.,

Secretary, Ontario Educational Association.

DEAR SIR,—We, the undersigned Auditors, have the honour to report that we have examined the books, statements and vouchers of the Treasurer, Mr. Henry Ward, and find them correct in every particular.

The receipts for the year amounted to \$2,419.15, and the expenditures to \$1,537.29, leaving a balance on hand at date of audit of \$881.86.

Respectfully submitted,

JOHN DEARNESS,

S. NETHERCOTT,

*Auditors.*



## GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

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### *ADDRESS OF WELCOME.*

DR. FALCONER, PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—Last year the Association met in the new Technical School and we at the University were deprived of the privilege of having you within our precincts. But we are pleased that you expressed a desire to return to the University. And I can assure you that if you were glad to come again to the University, we are very glad also to see you here. The fact that you were away for one year makes our welcome to you all the warmer this year. You come at a time in which you will find us in the University in a very different condition from what we were in two years ago. And you also come from your schools, having left conditions very different from what they were two years ago.

We have all learned much in those two years. We have been putting our education to the test, and I think we may all say that we have not been disappointed. Whatever shortcoming there may have been, our youth have shown that they are able to respond to a worthy call. They have shown high qualities of manhood. And the people who have been trained in those schools, the fathers and the mothers, have shown no less power to sacrifice and to yield everything that they hold dear for the sake of the cause that is supreme.

We are now also looking forward to a future, which I think is brighter; I think we all recognize that it is brighter. And in that future there are many problems that will have to be faced. We who are interested in education must see to it that when new problems come upon the world, ours shall not be forgotten. In the clash of arms, educational problems disappeared for the while, but they will emerge again. And as a result of our experience of these years, experience in which we have been adapting those whom we have been training to the call of public service, we shall certainly be required to fit those who are coming up, those from childhood who

are now advancing towards youth, for a very much larger area of usefulness than we had dreamed of.

What changes have come in the past few weeks! To my mind one of the most momentous is the entrance of the United States into the group of our Allies. That opens up a future, the meaning of which we can hardly understand to-day. It means the possibility of the English-speaking peoples understanding one another again as they have not understood one another for more than 100 years. And what that means for the world we cannot yet, we have not sufficient vision to penetrate. But with the new Empire, with the new relation of English-speaking peoples, with the new democracies of the world, our children and those who are coming into youth have before them opportunities, prospects, that their predecessors would have deemed impossible to hope for.

The dark days, we hope, are behind us. The bright days, we hope, are ahead of us. And when the clouds of this heavy, heavy sorrow pass away we may look forward, I believe, to a very much brighter day than we should have deemed possible two years ago, when you met here. In these circumstances, then, of sadness and yet of hope and optimism, we, in our depleted condition, welcome you who have sent forth boys and girls into service, active enlistment or other national service, we welcome you as co-workers in the cause of education, which, from now on, undoubtedly has prospects that are far brighter than any we have in our lifetime enjoyed.

Again, on the part of the University, I welcome you warmly this evening.

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*ADDRESS OF WELCOME.*

HON. R. A. PYNE, M.D., LL.D., MINISTER OF EDUCATION,  
TORONTO.

*Mr. President, Dr. Falconer, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—I have had the privilege extended to me on so many occasions of addressing this august body that if I find it difficult to-night to find any subject that might be attractive or entertaining or interesting to you, I do not think I can be blamed. I think this must be the twelfth time that I have had the privilege of saying a few words to you.

And then recently, you know, amongst the many activities of education, one on which I addressed you on many occasions, has now been taken out of the arena of educational activities; I refer to that very innocent Superannuation Bill. In connection with that Bill, I see here and there in this audience members of the teaching profession to whom teachers generally ought to be very grateful for their long, arduous, and never-failing energy in promoting the measure. Now that success has crowned your efforts, I can say as one who knows, that your Committee did good and constant work.

As last year, so during this year, the war still goes on, and naturally our thoughts and ideas turn to that one prominent subject. I am glad to congratulate the Association upon the large gathering that is here, upon the numbers I understand who are attending your meetings, even during the war, an event which is disturbing and disrupting so many excellent movements on the old Continent as well as on this. This year of 1917 marks an epoch in the history of Canada. It is the 50th year of Confederation, and in looking over your programme, I found that this was your 56th annual meeting. Perhaps the great success that has attended Confederation was caused by the Fathers of Confederation following six years after in the footsteps of your Association, and thus declaring for union, consolidation and progress. Let that be as it may, I think it is true—at least I believe it, at any rate—that the great success that has attended this Canadian Nationhood is due in no slight measure to the people I see before me and the teachers who have gone before. They have sown the seed, and you have reaped the harvest in the achievements of this great Confederation, now

in its 50th year, the semi-centennial, as it were, of our nationhood. And all through that time the teachers have been steadily doing their work, inculcating the best possible principles in the youth of this country, all tending to better citizenship.

So I congratulate you in this 50th anniversary of Confederation, upon the valuable work that you have accomplished for Canada, all through these long years. We remember the history of the strenuous times when Confederation was brought about, and the great statesmen, prominent amongst them being Brown, and Cartier, and Macdonald, and McDougall, and Tupper, and Tilley, who joined to effect it. These great men, differing politically, differing in many ways, set aside all their party affiliations and joined together in the great work of carrying the union, making the necessary compromise, so that, in 1867, the four provinces, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia united to form the Dominion, followed soon after, as you are aware, by Manitoba, the Northwest Territories and by British Columbia, until, I think in 1873, the accession of Prince Edward Island made one continuous Canada from the Atlantic to the Pacific. For years after Confederation had come into existence there were rumors that it was a confederation that would never bear the stress and strain that might come upon it, and that it was no stronger than a rope of sand. But its founders always believed in its ultimate success. And now, there is one consolation, ladies and gentlemen, we can take from this war: There was never such stress and strain anticipated as has come upon the Dominion on account of this war. Yet they stand together, as we all know, like one man in the defence of Canada and in the defence of the greater Empire to which we belong. So this at least is a consolation to us for these awful events which have been referred to so eloquently by Archdeacon Cody and by Dr. Falconer, events which have brought sadness to so many homes. But who are we? If we ask ourselves that question, we at once get the answer: We are the sons of the English, Irish, Scotch and Welsh who settled in this country, some of us the descendants of the U. E. Loyalist pioneers, and all reflecting the common sentiment which naturally exists to-day in the breasts of the descendants of such people. And that is why you find them to-day, as they are, fighting shoulder to shoulder with Britons for civilization and for liberty in this world. And that sentiment you never can change. Those



statesmen of the day I have spoken of knew who would follow them, and knew that this great Confederation would be in safe hands. The same doubts existed about the permanence of the British Empire that existed about the formation of the Confederation of Canada. And the war brings us consolation regarding the Empire. For there we find sons of people from all over the world rushing to strengthen and uphold the arm of the British people in this great struggle. We come from a stock that is not easily put down, and not ready to give up. Why, in to-night's papers what do you read? "Taken by the Canadians, with the British, 9,000 prisoners and 40 guns." Ladies and gentlemen, 40 guns is more than some of the great nations of the world possessed a very few years ago. In all their stores of artillery they had not 40 guns. It is an extraordinary achievement, this taking of 40 guns, and I was delighted to read the report. If the war has brought sadness to many homes, those who have a relative at the front can console themselves with this feeling: "I was not able to be there myself, but my son has done his duty, or my daughter." Because the sons and daughters of Canada have given themselves freely to this terrific struggle.

Regarding educational affairs, it would not be wise for me, even if I were able, to attempt to discuss old or new ideals in education. I observed that during your sessions to-day in the different sections, you were discussing some 23 or 24 different phases of education. All the professions to-day, the teaching profession as well as the others, are drifting into specialism. Let the specialist deal with these special aspects of education as they are doing in medicine, in law, and in teaching, so that I may safely leave educational ideals to this great body.

Let me say, in conclusion, on behalf of the Government whom I have had the honor of representing now for some years here, I extend to you a welcome to this meeting. Never in the history of the Province or in the history of the present Government could I have done so with a stronger certainty of support for all educational interests. I think the Government is prepared to go any length in support of educational ideas that make for the upbuilding of better citizenship in this Province. I bear to you a special message from the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst, and that is "to extend to you a hearty welcome to this meeting, and to express the hope that the result of your deliberations will be for the greatest possible advantage of the people of Ontario, of all Canada and the Empire at large. (Applause.)

*PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.**"EDUCATION AND THE WAR"*

MAURICE HUTTON, PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

This war is said to have been made in Germany by the professors: by Treitchke, Nietzsche, Ostwald and Haeckel: even by Eucken, Wilamowitz-Mollendorf and Harnack: by their teaching of the mission of the German race: by their insistence upon its superior kultur, its superior gifts of thought and comprehension, its greater self-control and power of organization, its greater genius even, according to that strange definition of genius, which explains it away into patience. And, in the second place, and further, by their teaching of and insistence upon, the political superiority of Germany to the rest of Europe: I mean the freedom of its government from the standards of the street: its ability to defy popular ignorance and prejudice, and to legislate from above. The government of Germany was not hampered by the necessity of carrying the people along with it: it had not to "wait and see" till its people were educated. It had not to delay until truths were ripe, were dawning, that is to say, on the popular mind. If the government saw that a thing was wanted, that was sufficient: it announced that thing as law. And the docile German people believed its government and accepted the law and did not scoff and doubt and deride and defy it, like the uneducated, "unreceptive" but independent-minded and self-governing democracies of Great Britain and France, when they heard from *their* governments something which they did not understand and did not like.

Democracies, from the very nature of the case—this was, I think, the argument put before the German people—cannot do anything well, because they are ignorant and prejudiced, but especially they cannot manage foreign politics—"a democracy cannot rule an Empire—" we are just asking that very question about Russia—according to the confession of an old Greek demagogue, because they are doubly ignorant and triply prejudiced. Germany, therefore, was the super-race in all departments of politics because not

a democracy but doubly and triply the super-race in the management of foreign politics. This was the German Government's view and the theme of the Imperial German professors.

But perhaps this is not quite fair to the best German universities and their best professors. The views of the German Government are not necessarily or always the views of the best German thought and the best German professors: the views of the German Government are the views of that German thought and those professors whom the Government thinks best. These professors profess to order: they are Government officials. There is no real freedom of thought in a German University, because, after all, even a German professor is human—even he was not born of a stock or a stone, but of men. He has children at home and a frau Professorin, who have to be fed and clothed. He has to find students, therefore, and popularity, and the Government controls by its smile or frown the supply of popularity and students. His promotion rests on the Government, not on the opinion of his students nor on the judgment of a small academic and independent circle.

It is not, therefore, the independent thought of independent and disinterested thinkers which reaches and moulds all Germany, but the manufactured and interested thought of professors whom the Government promotes and who, in turn, promote the Government. The Government will not actually interfere with the unbelievers and critics among its professors, but it can passively destroy their influence and condemn them to obscurity, because it controls the Universities, even as it controls the trade and the business enterprise of the nation. Its paternal hand is everywhere, its philosopher-King is talking and directing everywhere: there is no real freedom in Germany to think thoughts unlike his.

In Great Britain and France, on the other hand, the natural tendency of intellectual men to break away from conventional opinion, to contradict popular opinion, to damn popular heroes at a venture (as Charles Lamb was used to do), to flout the ignorances and prejudices of a populace and a popularly elected Government, these things always involve a more or less overt antagonism between the thinkers and the Government: and always carry a large proportion of the academic class, professors and school masters, into hostility towards the Government. The Government, in return, either

neglects these men as a negligible minority, whose votes don't count, and whose knowledge is only a nuisance for plain men like themselves—and democratic governments consist more and more of very plain men—or it actively dislikes them and dubs them all cranks alike: some ultra-Radical cranks and some ultra-Tory cranks; but cranks in either case.

You have only to look at England to see that the Government and the Universities do not speak with one voice (as they do in Germany), for two reasons: first, the Government on its side does not control University thought: and second, the Universities on their side, not being controlled by a Government, are apt to have as many thoughts as they have professors, and there is no unanimity or agreement in their voice. In Great Britain there are always Radicals among the University men and the leaders of the teaching profession, who are contemptuous of the Government as not half radical enough. The Greek professor at Oxford used to be one of these. There are also, of course, many Tories, contemptuous of the Government as much too radical and too popular and ignorant. The Government has to steer a path between these extreme men, and it can only approach either extreme, after it has carefully waited to see how far the people have moved in either direction.

The last Government but one, for example, in Great Britain was controlled by a populace and a popular vote, which seemed, up to 1914, very radical, though not radical enough for many Radical professors and men of science, for Professor Gilbert Murray and Mr. Bertrand Russell, and Mr. Charles Trevelyan and the Buxton family and many other University men.

The next Government which came in after the war was much less radical, because the people had discovered, through the war, that they had been living in a fool's paradise of pacifism: and they turned half round towards the unpopular party, which had forewarned them of the war, and which had now been proved to have possessed in that matter greater knowledge and better judgment. The third, or present, Government of Great Britain has taken a further stride in the same direction, because the war has so confounded and upset all previously popular opinion that popular opinion demands now only strong and stubborn men of affairs, who can organize war and achieve victory: and it does not care—until



the war be over—how unpopular may be or may once have been their opinions on merely domestic questions.

Therefore it is not true to say that this war has been made by thought and thinkers and schools and universities working freely and developing unhindered. This war has been made in Germany by a manufactured thought, made in manufactured Universities, and delivered to a docile people by official thinkers; while in Great Britain it has not been made by the schools or universities at all, if only because those schoolmasters and professors *had* no common thought. They were free thinkers in a free people, as divided and separate in their thoughts almost as in their persons.

But though the schoolmasters and the thinkers have not made this war—in the proper sense—in either country, it is undeniable that the war has reacted, is reacting and will react on education.

In Great Britain it has aroused a cry for a more practical and more scientific education. British education before the war, people feel, was more successful in the formation of character, which indeed formed itself out of causes much deeper than education, than in the organization of science. The character so formed at first bore the test of war admirably: it produced devoted officers and soldiers and staved off ruin and despair by a narrow margin, in the first four dreadful months of pacifism and fool's paradise and unpreparedness. But then trench warfare followed, and it became necessary to beat the Germans not in character only—that was done from the start—but in material science and scientific organization. So then the cry began—however quaintly inconsequent it may sound: "Science has brutalized the Germans; but we can only beat them by being more scientific and more German." And now to-day France and Great Britain are wearing Germany down by her own weapons: by artillery and aviation, and by a more scientific use of their control of the sea, their partial control at any rate: in addition to which, of course, they are still maintaining for neutrals with more or less success the freedom of the seas, in the sense in which those words appeal most to neutrals, that is, security for life at least at sea, so far as the allied fleets can secure it against German submarines. And this helps the Allies to win the war, by giving them at least the sympathy and moral support of all neutrals: and gradually a trifle more: gradually the alliance of former neutrals—

here a neutral and there a neutral: Italy, Roumania, the United States—the last the most welcome ally to us of all the neutrals, because their best men have never been neutral, but have sent their sons to stand in trenches side by side with Canadians and British. But this sympathy, after all, is a minor weapon; the great weapons are artillery and aviation: science and organization and munitions. And naturally, therefore, there has arisen a cry for more scientific education. The great chemists like Sir William Ramsay said at the very beginning of the war that the British Government was criminally ignorant and indifferent to chemistry, to the uses of cotton for explosives in particular; that if the British Government had made cotton contraband at once, the war might have been over by now.

The men of science, that is, are up in arms against an education which produces only statesmen like Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey, men who understand history no doubt, ancient and modern, and human nature also (as no German ever did), and who know how to humor human nature and democracy into good sense, how to flatter it, “jolly” it, lure it, persuade it into new unpopular paths, into the resignation even of its most beloved and most idolized fetishes, even of liberty itself, for the duration of the war; men who can coach it, cajole it, coax it even into conscription, but who do not begin to understand the resources of modern science. The men of science complain that the sort of education which produces only humanists and historians like these, fitted to handle domestic and foreign politics with some success and with honorable scruples, and decent consideration for everyone’s feelings and prejudices, but with excessive patience also and endless delay while they “wait and see,” and see and wait, with no knowledge of the material resources of civilization, is quite out of date in a struggle for life and death, wherein material resources mean everything. We are fighting Germany, they say, and therefore not with kid gloves; we are to beat Germany at her own infernal devices, and therefore, even though this war be in itself a phase of the eternal war of the humanities against materialism, and though we and our Allies represent the humanities, nevertheless we must for the future be more regardful of materialism also than we have been. We must teach more of science and less of the humanities; less character and more efficiency, less wisdom and more knowledge, less individuality and more organization, less culture and more kultur.

If this be so, it would not be surprising if the department of classics, in particular—in spite of the two classical men now in power, Lord Milner and Lord Curzon, and a third man, now deceased, more successful in his time than either, Lord Cromer—were to suffer by this war, were to suffer even more from its ignorance of science than from the cunning, the craft and the general unscrupulousness of its ancient idols and heroes, the Greeks. I suppose it is true that the present-day Greeks—quite apart from science—have damaged the reputation of their language and of all who studied it. (That is hard on Greek, and undeserved, seeing that ancient Greece, at her best, never produced a statesman more reasonable and moderate, nor firmer and more straightforward and candid than Venizelos. It is monstrously unjust that he should have been overshadowed by the meaner and more dishonest section of his countrymen and by an unscrupulous German Dane.)

But so it is, and the classics, it seems likely, may suffer in England and France from the war, because the war hinges so largely on material forces.

Germany, even in defeat, may materialize and commercialize her humaner victors to her own meaner methods and lower aims, and may make materialistic science the chief object of study for Great Britain and for France, as it has been her own chief study.

And this is a reflection disquieting to classical people; but after all, ladies and gentlemen, if you will examine the memorials published in Great Britain from the scientific point of view you will find that among the signatories are a number of very distinguished classical scholars. The signatures of these men, I submit to you, is an unconscious and quite unintended testimonial to the very study they are ostensibly deprecating and depreciating: a study and a subject which leaves those who have taken it so impartial, dispassionate, detached and independent, that they can still take a cool survey of the field of education and recommend another subject for study as superior to their own, can say something, can say much for itself. It has at least produced the one result for which education primarily exists, independent thinking—the readiness to contradict the hobbies of a man's own self and of his own little circle. Some scientific men, by the way, in the same spirit—Sir William Osler is one—have deprecated the extreme claims of science and

have signed the classical memorials. As long as the Universities of Great Britain produce on both sides minds so detached, dispassionate and independent, there is not so much amiss with them, as there would be something amiss, if all their mathematicians believed only in mathematics, and all their classicists only in classics, and all their scientists only in science.

A friend of mine, a mathematician, has ventured the aphorism that science, the conquest of nature, is life's business and man's business in life, while literature is but life's relaxation and man's relaxation in life. I will only offer, in all humility, one comment: that, if this conquest of nature ever becomes again man's only business, yes, or even becomes his chief business in life, there will be no time or heart left for literature or any other relaxation. We shall all be too busy scalping each other. If the first and greater part of life's business, if the prime, practical duty of man be not, as Socrates fondly imagined it was, to know and conquer himself and develop character in such conquest and knowledge, then the whole world will soon be in reality—as Europe is already in the intellectual imagination of some anæmic women—one vast dog-fight. The fighting is there already, it is true, but it is not a dog-fight; or at any rate if it is, it is the fight of a pack of honest watch-dogs—whom Plato conceived to be the noblest works of God—against a tiger and a wolf and two jackals.

These are the fairly definite and positive changes in education which the war is perhaps introducing: better teaching of science and less teaching of the humanities; a more material, a less ethical education; a more practical education, some will say; a less practical, a few others will retort. What, after all, is "practical"? Can anyone here say? But there are other changes in education, wider and less definite, which the war will cause to seem more necessary than ever, if only they be possible. People have been complaining of our examination system ever since I can remember anything. Personally, I think there is something in the complaint, but not what the complainants themselves think and mean. After forty years' experience of examinations, I think they generally succeed in bringing to the top the most thoughtful, the most intellectual, the most quick-witted students, but not always by any means the students who are most effective in life, who can organize, who can influence men, who can get things done.



And that is why people complain so much of examinations. They expect too much and expect something which the old sort of examination never will give them. I will take two illustrations. The examinations for the Indian Civil Service are intended to find Civil servants who can govern Indian districts, who can administer great tracts of country with a few white assistants and a few only; who are to be leaders of men, and governors, not students. But there is nothing in the old sort of examination to bring such men to the front. These literary examinations on books and authors and subjects (classical or scientific) are much more likely to bring to the front some clever writer, who can express himself neatly and interestingly, and write a good article for a newspaper, but who may well be the last man to face a crisis or a mob, or to act as slave-driver and get things done; the last man to shoulder responsibility and impose his will on others and represent the Empire, and act and think imperially. So long as only Englishmen competed in these Civil Service examinations, it did not matter much; for, after all, all the candidates, being Englishmen, were likely to have some force of character, if little acuteness of intellect, and were not likely, in any large number, to be just slipshod Bohemian men of letters, without fixed habits or principles. But when the babu from Bengal came over to compete, the problem became more serious. This sort of student can beat the average Englishman at a literary examination, but he has no force of character, no will or honesty of intention, to back up his superficial gifts. He has none of the prestige of the white man for ruling an Indian district, and no sterling rectitude and determined purpose to compensate for the lack of prestige and courage. He is to his British colleagues what the starvling Greek of the Roman Empire was to the magistrates of Rome, or what a Greek or an Armenian is to-day to a Turk—just a clever fellow, too clever by half, who can not be trusted, and who can be kicked—a man of genius even, perhaps, but without self-respect or the respect of others.

It was very natural then that the late Mr. Rhodes, living in South Africa and seeing the Empire's needs, rebelled against our system of examinations, and introduced for his scholarships a new system, which gives to scholarship and to written examinations only three-tenths of the total of marks allotted, the remaining seven-tenths going to things more vital than intellect, as he thought: to a

combination of the qualities of leadership, athletic prowess, and—what shall I say?—chivalry—championship of the weak—sympathy with the under dog—the characteristic British spirit of fair play—in a word, the British form of Christianity. I suppose every man sees the immense advantage of this new and Rhodian style of measuring candidates, if only—but it is a big if—if only it be really practicable; if only means can be found for gauging leadership and athletic prowess and Christian chivalry anything like as effective as the means for gauging intelligence and scholarship.

But in fact I am afraid the only other thing, besides intelligence and scholarship, easily gauged, is athletic prowess and that is the least important of the three new factors in a Rhodian examination.

There is a second illustration of this same rebellion against the old system of examinations, besides the Rhodes scholarships.

The Colleges in Oxford and Cambridge used to give their fellowships largely as intellectual prizes upon the result of written examinations; but whenever in the last thirty years or so they have wanted in the fellow to be appointed, a colleague, a lecturer, an officer to assist in the conduct of a college, they have very generally dispensed with examinations, and they have appointed the candidate whom they wanted as a man whose character they knew and trusted, and on whom they could count to administer a college and control and influence young men. They have not risked an examination which might bring to the front some ingenious man of letters, whom no one in the College could trust or understand, who would only be an eccentric nonentity or an awful example in the eyes of the British undergraduate; who could never be set up to lecture in a lecture-room to those unsympathetic and unintellectual, but quite practical, youths.

Now the war will deepen and intensify this dissatisfaction with literary examinations, and this new desire to appoint men to office for their qualities of character and will-power rather than for their knowledge or their gifts of expression.

This dissatisfaction with literature and oratory is so widespread. It stares us in the face to-day in politics. This strange war has brought down the mighty from their seat; but it is not only Czars and Kaisers whom it has brought down or threatened: just

as much the old parliamentarians and members of parliament and talkers and journalists. In Russia the war has helped democracy; in Germany no doubt it will in time have the same result, though it was actually launched to stifle and choke off democracy in advance, and perpetuate autocracy. But conversely, in France and Great Britain it has discredited the old leaders of democracy, the orators of Parliament and the organizers of majorities and the old Parliamentary hands. Each nation knows where its own shoe has been pinching, and each has thrown off its old rulers, whether Czars or Premiers. Three Governments have followed one another in Britain, and no one cares, because no one cares about politicians any longer. Every one wants men who can get things done, who have driving power; and if a man combines—like the present Premier—amazing power of persuasion, amazing leadership and magnetism with considerable moral courage, with willingness—above that of other statesmen—to face the two tyrannical and allied forces of Great Britain, the brewers and the trade unions, to stand up to these twin mighty potentates and insist upon concessions from them, why then such a man is irresistible and is made dictator by unanimous consent. And no one laments for the deposed Parliament except its forgotten members and a few journalists, who loved the old sterile round of party controversy and lived for it—the men of the *Nation* and the *Daily News*: Messrs. Massingham and Gardiner. We used, all of us, to scoff at the German Reichstag, and call it a debating society; but since the war we have all recognized that our own Parliament at Westminster was also a debating society, in the sense that it placed an inordinate value on debate, on controversy, on cajolery, or argument, on the manipulation of majorities and the management of parties, and all such useless and deadly lumber—useless and deadly in war time. We used to pride ourselves on settling our political quarrels by ballots instead of by bullets, and we said it so often that at last we took it for granted that political quarrelling was the best and highest life a nation could pursue, and an end in itself.

So, too, in France, governments fall and great orators are driven from office, and no one cares; for it is General Nivelle and not Monsieur Viviani who interests France to-day. So in Italy, the supreme manager of parties, Signor Giolitti, was expelled from office long before the same fate overtook his British counterpart, the



embodiment of all tact and conciliation and intellectual acrobatics, Mr. Asquith.

The war has discredited for the time a literary education, the education which enables a man to shine on the hustings and in debate or in leading articles in party papers and in houses of Parliament. It has brought to the front instead the sort of men who, on this continent, despise politics and never enter them—great manufacturers and organizers of labour, great men of business. The present British Government—at last—after all the scoffs at Members of Parliament, which began with Carlyle and Dickens more than fifty years ago—at last, after fifty years, includes three or four men who have not even a seat in Parliament yet; who have gained their fame and their place by qualities less showy than debate and less literary, less dependent on tongue and pen, deriving more directly from the will. The war has discredited Parliaments and parties—parties even more than Parliaments. Great Britain has rejected for the duration of the war all Party Government. France has done the same, and Italy and Australia. They all have National Governments. And if we have not yet done the same in Canada, no one can quite say why not. The Canadian clubs, even in a city so full of party politics as Toronto, have voted by huge majorities for a non-party Government. Probably nine-tenths of the men and women in this hall would like to see the same thing in Provincial matters no less than in matters Federal; would much rather see Mr. Rowell and Sir William sitting at the same table than artificially opposed to each other by our out-of-date party system—at least for the duration of the war. Then if a number of people not in politics at all at present were added to a national government, instead of party politicians, everybody would rejoice a second time; and if a number of the party politicians disappeared for ever into obscurity—well, they never would be missed.

And the point of all this is that the sort of education which makes a good man of business, and which brings to the front those qualities of character and leadership, which belong to such men, will be the education respected and sought for after the war, while oratory and debate and fluency of speech and gifts of expression and gifts of wire-pulling and electioneering, and the education which gives its honours to these literary qualities, will be at a discount.



But this is a different thing from the other controversy between the classics and science. The world is agreed that it does not want a rhetorical and literary and belletristic education—the sort of education which ruled in Oxford, I think, about seventy years ago, before it was superseded by ancient history and philosophy and the serious study of Greek and Roman thought; but there agreement ceases.

The world will want its examinations and its education after the war so directed as to develop and bring to the front character and leadership of a type more solid than oratory, and less merely literary. But whether that solid character and leadership is better developed by scientific studies or by humanistic studies, by material science or by the history and records of the past, that probably will remain for our children, as it has been for our ancestors, an open question, where there will be as many answers as there are questioners, and where each one will answer the question for himself—with equal conviction and with equal truth—just according to his own temperament and his own personal experience.

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## FIFTY YEARS OF CONFEDERATION.

PROFESSOR O. D. SKELTON, M.A., QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—The subject on which it was suggested that I should speak to you to-night, "Fifty Years of Confederation," is one that will be much in our minds in the next few months.

Fifty years is not a long period in the life of a nation. It is but as a day in the life of Britain or of France, or that ancient Empire-Republic of China. But when it is the first fifty years in a nation's life, its celebration takes on something of the importance of the celebration of the first birthday of the first baby in the family.

The fifty years that have just passed have been the fundamental years, the years in which the foundations of the nation were being laid; the years in which the temper and ideals of the new nation were being fashioned; the years in which the destinies of the future were being shaped and moulded.

Perhaps there is no way in which we can more easily realize what the past fifty years have meant for Canada than by a comparison with what the same years have brought to our twin State. Some of you may not have realized that Canada has a twin. History makes strange bed-fellows, and I do not think that it ever made stranger bed-fellows than when it gave the same birthday to the two countries that are facing each other to-night across the Vimy ridge, Canada and Germany.

It was on July 1st, 1867, that the four scattered backwoods Provinces came together to form a Confederation, with no great plaudits or attention from the world. On the same day, with much greater share of pomp and circumstance, much greater share of the world's attention, the North German Confederation was founded. It is true that it was not until four years later that that Confederation was rounded out to its present extent by the addition of Bavaria and the other southern States; just as it is true that it was not until six years later that Canada attained its present extent by the addition of both our easternmost and westernmost Provinces. But from that day the constitution and the character of both the

Empire of Germany and the Dominion of Canada were definitely fixed. In fact, we had a narrow escape from being not merely twins but triplets, for it was in the same momentous year—1867—although a few months later in the year, that the present dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary was formed. You recall that Austria, driven out of the old German Confederation by its successful rival, Prussia, looked eastward, came to terms with Hungary, and formed that curious ramshackle Empire, which at present is in such imminent need and likelihood of dissolution or of radical reshaping.

When we look back on this fact, we are moved, perhaps, to use the words of Bunyan whenever he saw a particularly unholy reprobate staggering by: "There, but for the grace of God, goes John Bunyan." And so we, considering the lot and the fortune of our twin, may have cause for thankfulness, and also for something of heart-searching. We are all familiar with what those fifty years have brought to Germany. We know they have brought her to the pinnacle of national greatness, given her a foremost place in the world's trade, in the world's industry and the world's learning; made her the admiration of the world for her experiments in social organization. At the same time those years have brought her to a fall beyond example in national life. For all that learning, all that industry, all that gift for organization were perverted to serve the ends of a callous militarism and an unbridled autoeracy. We had the curious spectacle of a nation with the ideals of the 10th or 12th century, armed with the science and knowledge and the organization of the 20th, somewhat as if the cave man had suddenly reappeared, endowed with the miracles of Twentieth Century science.

Now, what have those fifty years brought to Canada? At first glance we would be inclined to say that our annals were very drab and gray and bare, mere parish annals, compared with the spectacular rise and spectacular fall of this accidental twin of ours. And, perhaps, in one way they are. Yet, I think, when we look a little closer we will find that we, too, have contributed something that is worth the world's attention. It is not enough, of course, from the point of view of what a nation has to do in the world that generations should come and go, that men should be born and marry and die; not enough that we should do our individual tasks with

care and honesty and honor. The question comes: What has the nation done? What have we done in our national task? We are the heirs of all ages. We have been gifted with wonderful opportunities and traditions. And the question is: have we added anything to the common store of mankind, or have we merely received and handed on nothing of our own?

I think we have added our share to the common stock. To take only some of the more outstanding achievements, we can say that these fifty years have meant an experiment in Empire, an experiment in international relations, an experiment in national development and nation building, an experiment in democracy. The experiments are none of them yet concluded. They have not all been successes, but even their failures have something to teach the world.

In the first place, Confederation has been an experiment, has made possible an experiment, in Empire, in imperial relations. When the Federation was formed, public men in Great Britain were almost wholly of the opinion that Confederation was but a stepping-stone to breaking away from the Empire. Few men at that time saw any alternative to complete control of the Empire by Great Britain other than separation of the colonies from the Mother Country. The old idea had been that the Empire existed for the sake of the Mother Country; that the monopoly of its trade was the only purpose of Empire, the only reason why the Mother Country could think it worth while to use its diplomacy and its fleet and its armies and its government to keep control of so many outlying parts of the earth. And when they lost that monopoly of trade, when, under Galt and Macdonald, Canada not only took away the monopoly but took away equality, put up tariff bars against the goods of even Britain itself, many in Britain thought that Empire had ceased to have any excuse for being. And when, a little later, during the Civil War, nearly every statesman and every eminent military man in Britain came to believe that it would be impossible, in case of war, to defend Canada against the United States, which had become, in the four years' struggle, the world's greatest military power, they concluded that Canada, instead of being an asset, was a liability of Empire, a hostage for Britain's good behavior. Yet few of the leading men of Britain were willing to abandon the colonies so long as they were not able to defend themselves. They had



assumed the liabilities of Empire, and they were willing to see it through. They were relieved, men of this way of thinking, when Confederation was proposed, because they thought that this would mean that Canada would hereafter be able to look after herself, and that, without dishonor, Britain might let her go her own way. It is sometimes said that that way of thinking in England was limited to Cobden and Bright and men of the Manchester school. Anyone who has taken the trouble to get any first-hand acquaintance with the opinion of the public men and press of England at the time of Confederation and several years afterwards, knows that this is not a fact, knows that in few important quarters in England was there any other feeling than that Confederation was just a stepping-stone to independence. It was a feeling that was common not only among Radicals, especially of the Manchester school, for the Radicals of the John Stuart Mill school, it should be noted, were among the few who were confident that the **Empire** would hold together. It was a feeling shared by Liberals like Gladstone and Lord Granville, by Conservatives like Disraeli and Lowe and Lord Derby. You are all familiar, for example, with Disraeli's famous petulant phrase, in 1854, that the colonies were "wretched millstones about our necks." But it is, perhaps, not as well known that in the very year that the British North America Act was framed, Disraeli, who was an Imperialist then and an Imperialist afterwards, but an Imperialist in a different sense than that in which we use the term to-day—a peculiarly Oriental sense—Disraeli, writing at that time to Lord Derby, declared "Power and influence we must have in Asia, therefore in Eastern Europe; therefore in Western Europe; but what is the use of these wretched deadweights of colonies, which we do not govern?" That, then, was the typical opinion of the time.

The fifty years of Confederation has shown that that expectation was unwarranted. They have shown that it has been possible to reconcile the ideas of nationality and of Empire. In that achievement Canada, I think, has played the foremost part—a part, the greatness of which is not usually recognized even in Canada itself. It was not always a conscious part. Our statesmen, our people, did not always see clearly the theory of Empire, the goal, before them. But instinctively in some cases, consciously in other cases, they developed that theory and practice of Empire which to-day holds good.

They insisted, in the first place, that we should advance steadily toward self-government. They insisted on taking over new powers, on shouldering new responsibilities, until at the present time the old theory that the Empire was a realm to be governed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom, has been relegated to the scrap heap of history, so far as the white dominions are concerned. But they were not content to assert their right to govern themselves.

Step by step, with this development, this assertion of self-government, the dominions, and Canada particularly, insisted on shouldering new responsibilities, working toward an ideal of co-operation between the different parts. Gradually, through High Commissionerships, Imperial Conferences and other organs of communication, ways were found by which the different parts of the Empire, while governing themselves in the affairs that were of chief interest to themselves, came together to talk over, to co-operate, to act together, in matters of common interest.

That is a conception of Empire that has been worked out in the fifty years that have passed, and in which Canadian statesmen played no small part. I think, when the history of Empire comes to be written, it will be found that Baldwin, La Fontaine, Macdonald and Tupper, Howe and Blake, Laurier and Borden have played a greater part in working out this theory of Empire than the statesmen even of the Mother Country or of the sister dominions. It is a conception of Empire that has no parallel or precedent in the world. It is a conception that our Prussian twin could not understand in a thousand years. It is a conception that has been tried in the furnace, that has been proved and vindicated beyond all doubt in the present mighty struggle, and it is a conception of Empire that I think will not soon pass away.

Again, Confederation has meant an experiment in international relations. It is sometimes said that Canada has no voice in foreign affairs. There is a sense in which it is very far from being true. We have had a voice, and, of late years, the chief voice, in those foreign affairs which may not always be ultimately of greatest concern to us, but which are of most immediate and direct concern, our relations with the United States.

One spur to Confederation was the fear that war might come with the United States, and that the scattered Provinces would fall victims to that mighty power, which had just built up a tremendous disciplined army in the struggle with the Southern States. To-day Canada and the United States are on the verge of fighting side by side against a common foe.

That, however, is not the contrast, the achievement, of which I wish to speak. It is more the conduct of the relations between these two countries which, as I said, are essentially a phase of foreign affairs. To-day, between these two countries, for 3,000 miles not a single cannon, not a single trench, not a single barbed-wire entanglement is found. Nowhere in the world, along no other boundary line in the world, would you find such a condition of affairs. Intercourse is free, criticism is often outspoken, but it is criticism of people who understand each other. No two neighboring countries in the world have carried on their international affairs in so sane and civilized a way as Canada and the United States have done in the past fifty years. I do not mean to say that we have been perfect. Very far from it. We have had our squabbles; we have both shown bad temper in our fishery dispute and boundary dispute, and probably will do so again. Nor do I mean to say that we deserve all the credit for this state of affairs. It is not because there is any special gift of common sense bestowed upon the natives of North America that we have achieved this civilized international relationship. Much of the credit must go to Great Britain for the way in which her statesmen steadfastly, sometimes with a good deal of criticism from us, kept in view the goal of Anglo-American friendship, and to the power of the British nation on the seas, which made it worth while to have the friendship of that power. Again, much of the credit is due to the fact that these two nations speak the same tongue. The barrier of alien speech does not raise difficulties between our two countries, as it does between so many countries in war-torn Europe. The fact, too, that each of the nations that divide this continent has ample elbow-room, that it is not cramped and crowded and overpopulated and forced to look, or to think that it is forced to look, beyond its border for room for the energy of its sons. This fact has had a great deal to do with the ease of keeping on good terms with each other. Yet, when all allowances and qualifications are made, I do think that we can honestly—the United

States and ourselves—take some credit to our statesmen, to our press, to our public, for attaining this attitude, this sane view of international relations which we hope will not long be singular and isolated in the world.

During the last few months, when so much attention was being given in Canada to the policy of the United States, when many people felt, rightly or wrongly, that those in charge of the destinies of that great people were not living up to its best ideals and opportunities, it is very creditable how little expression of this criticism there was in our press. Very few outbursts of petulance or words of criticism found expression, and we have our reward to-day.

Again, Confederation has meant an experiment in national development, in national unity. Here we, with three million people, found ourselves at Confederation with half a continent to stake out, to develop. I do not know that a young people ever had such a task put before them before, such an opportunity. We had the courage to attempt it. Our statesmen did not hesitate to offer to throw a trancontinental railway across the continent as the condition of bringing in the farthest province by the sea. They held to their determination to make Canada one even in the dark days when settlers were few and far between, and depression weighed on all the industries of the country.

In many ways Canada is a very hard country to unite. It was comparatively easy to write "Canada" on the map, to paint the whole northern part of North America red, but it was a very much harder thing to write Canada on the hearts and minds of all the men and women and children spread across this vast continent. It has been a very difficult task to unite Canada. "Canada is a hard country to govern," said Sir John Macdonald, and no one knew better. The physical difficulties in the way are astounding. On the map Canada appears to be a vast territory, some three or four thousand miles from east to west, some two or three thousand miles from south to north. Yet you may recall the jibe that Christopher Dunkin, that ablest opponent of Confederation, made when someone said to him, referring to the old parable of the faggot of sticks: "Bind the British North American provinces together, and they could not be broken." "A faggot of sticks!" Dunkin exclaimed, "you mean a string of fishing rods tied by the ends." There was



just enough of truth in that rhetorical jibe to hurt. While on the map we seem to be 2,000 miles from north to south, as a matter of fact, if you look at an atlas that shows the populated parts of Canada, Canada will appear a stretch of territory 4,000 miles wide by, on the average, not more than 100 miles from north to south, sometimes exceeding that and sometimes less. And when you think, too, that this narrow stretch, which every year fortunately is being widened and broadened, when you think that this was broken in the middle by that 800 or 1,000 miles of Laurentian wilderness—what we used to consider wilderness—that juts down between Hudson Bay and Lake Superior—when you contrast that state of affairs with the lot of the United States, where there is no physical barrier between east and west and north and south, and where settlement is continuous and intercourse unhampered, then you realize somewhat of the physical difficulties that the unification of Canada involved. And when we think, too, of the difficulties in the way of difference of race and speech and creed that faced the fathers of Confederation and those who took up the task after them; when we consider that Canada was divided between two great nationalities, one of them the descendants of the people who had first planted civilization on these shores, the other the descendants of that country who had long been hereditary foes of France, we can realize something of the difficulties that faced our statesmen.

The difficulties have lately been intensified, been diversified, perhaps. Into our west and into our great cities there have poured swarms of immigrants beyond anything that any nation ever saw, in proportion to its population. In those three or four years when our immigration was at its height, we were getting twenty times as many immigrants in proportion to the people already here as the United States was receiving. As you know, there are more Jews in Montreal than in Jerusalem, and three times as many Austro-Hungarians as Indians in the west.

These are simply indications of the difficulties that Canada has had to face in the way of national unity. We have tried to face it in many ways. We have tried to bind east and west together by building railways, and sometimes that national aim was the only aim that would warrant and excuse many of our railway projects. We have tried to bind them together by the efforts of our teachers,

the efforts of our churches, the efforts of our chartered banks, the efforts of our political parties, and in a great measure we have succeeded.

Perhaps there is nothing that binds a nation so much together as the memory of common sacrifices and common glories. I have heard Principal Gordon speak of the way in which the common memories, the common thrill, at the time of the Riel Rebellion first made Maritime Province men realize that they were part of the Dominion. If that was so in that case, what will be the effect of the memories and the traditions of the glories and the sadness that we share in common, east and west and north and south, in connection with the present mighty struggle! It may be, then, that our twin state builded better than it knew, and may have done as much to unite Canada, as it has done to tear its own people apart.

Yet we have not altogether succeeded. We have not welded Canada together outwardly. We have not succeeded, perhaps, in some phases of material development as well as our friends the Germans would have done. We have not shown the same forethought and the same capacity for organization as they would have shown. And yet, while there are failures to record, while there are still embers of passion between different sections and different races which will easily start to flame; while there are still many undigested patches of Europe on our western plains that will require careful attention; still those who know the country best speak to us optimistically of the progress towards national unity. We have every reason not to be satisfied, not to be self-satisfied, but to have hope and confidence, reason to believe that the next fifty years will complete what the first fifty have carried so far toward achievement, and that national unity will grow with every year that the Dominion has to face.

A factor in this endeavor to secure national unity has been our experiment in federalism. One reason why we have managed to secure such measure of success as we have attained in bringing the nation together and in making all the different parts of the country share a common Canadian sentiment, has been that we have left a great deal of local independence to the several parts of the country. We, perhaps, do not realize how comparatively rare the federal experiment was at the time when Canada decided to embark upon it.

Outside of Switzerland and the United States and the shadowy federalism of some Latin-American countries, there were no federal countries in existence at the time when the Canadian Confederation came into being. We have blazed out several new paths. We have not always been successful in them. Our system of provincial subsidies, our system of Federal veto, are questionable successes. But, on the whole, we have contributed new phases, new achievements, through our experiment in federalism. We can safely say that we owe much of whatever success we have attained in securing national unity to this fact, that through the federal system we were able to allow the different localities which had different industrial, different racial, different religious interests, it might be, as much as possible to look after their own affairs, while in the common federal Parliament we found a place to bring all together on a common platform.

Again, we may say that Confederation has been an experiment in democracy. Here, perhaps, the contrast with our accidental twin is greatest. None of us, I think, would care to say that that experiment has been entirely successful. It has been marred by much inefficiency, much muddling and lack of foresight, much graft and corruption, which often has shamed us to the core. Yet it has had its great achievements. There have been men, there have been movements in our political annals of the past fifty years, which make us proud of Canada and make us proud of democracy. I do not think that we need blush when we make a comparison with other countries except, perhaps, the mother country, which went through its period of sowing the wild oats of democracy a little earlier than we did, and, least of all, when we compare ourselves with the country, the Empire, which came into existence on our natal day. We sometimes are inclined to think that we have the worst politicians on earth, judging, at least, by what each of us says of the politicians of the opposite stripe. It is probably true that every country gets the politicians it deserves, in the long run, sometimes a little better than we deserve, sometimes a little worse, but in the long run pretty much what we deserve. And on the whole—I am not referring particularly to present company—we ought to be thankful that we have fared so well as we have. We have been like the men of other new countries, often too pre-occupied with our individual affairs to give the attention to public affairs that we

should have given. And politics in the past fifty years have become a much more serious business than they used to be. They involve a much greater strain on the time of men and leaders than they used to involve.

One respect in which there has been great improvement is in the lessened bitterness of political relations. I have recently been reading the files of party papers of the late fifties and early sixties, and out of a single issue I think you could decoct more gall and bitterness than you would find in the average party journal of to-day in a month. Perhaps we are not quite as partisan even, though the improvement in this respect has not been quite as marked.

Another change in our political situation, to which I have already referred, is the fact that politics at the present time involve a much greater strain, a much greater sacrifice of the time and energy of political leaders than was true when Confederation was formed.

It is striking when you look over the last Parliaments of the Province of Canada and early Parliaments of the Dominion, to what an extent the benches were filled by men who were active in business, at the same time they were taking an active part in politics. Sessions were shorter; organization was less exacting; the country was smaller; there were fewer demands upon the politician's time. It was possible for a man to take a part in politics without sacrificing what he has to sacrifice to-day. And that is a fact that we should remember when we are led to criticise our politicians and to criticise the men who have not gone into politics. We ought to remember the sacrifice that politics entails, and to remember that in all fairness each one of us of the rank and file ought to do more than was necessary in the older days.

We have not altogether succeeded in this experiment of democracy. And yet I think when we compare it with the experiments in government of the lands overseas, even from the point of view of efficiency, not in a short term but in a long term view, even from the point of view of corruption—because if we have more individual we have less class graft than some of the European states—if we consider particularly the extent to which democracy



has made possible the education of the people, we again have reason, not for being content, but for being heartened to go on to a greater future.

These, then, are some of the broader paths in which we have scored an achievement. We have done our part in working out a unique conception of Imperial relations, in working out a new view and practice of international relations. We have contributed our share to the industrial development and to the nation building of the world. We have done a little, and we hope to do more, in the way of proving democracy to be a fit instrument and system for a modern people. We have reason, when we look back over this achievement, to take heart and to take fresh resolve to do our part to make the Canada of the future a nobler country. We have reason not to thank God that we are not as our twin state, but to be thankful that our temptations were fewer, to be thankful that we had better traditions and ampler chance, and to determine that we shall, in the future, use to the fullest advantage that we can the great opportunities and the great task that has been set before us.

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*THE DOMINIONS AND THE WAR.*

N. W. R. OWELL, K.C., M.P.P.

According to a distinguished Japanese naval officer, the two great revelations of this war are the marvellous spirit of France—the courage, self-sacrifice and whole-hearted devotion of the French people in the cause of liberty; and the spontaneous co-operation of the Dominions of our Empire in this great conflict.

It may be that we are living too close to the actual events of the hour to appreciate the real significance of what is now taking place; but the men of the East, wise men of the East, looking out upon the whole world situation, perceive in the response of the Dominions to this great appeal, and their participation in this struggle, one of the most inspiring scenes in modern history. It is a notice to all nations that the new powers which have arisen in the East, in the South and in the West, owing allegiance to the same Sovereign, recognize their partnership with the mother country, and say to the world that when the cause of liberty is at stake and the interests of the Empire are vitally concerned, we stand together, mother and daughter nations. This has a very deep significance for the world, not only for the present, but for the days that lie before us. Germany counted on the disintegration of our Empire; Humanity rejoices in its unity.

While the Dominions are at war because they are part of the British Empire, they are taking part in the war by the free and spontaneous action of their own parliaments. As free nations they have joined in waging a defensive war on behalf of democracy and human liberty against the most powerful and ruthless military autocracy in the world. This war is now just as much their war as it is that of Britain, Belgium, France or Russia. The Dominions must accept all the responsibilities and consequences of their position as belligerent powers and organize their man power and resources so as to throw their whole strength into the struggle. They must do this to preserve their own national future and help save democracy and civilization.

What has been the direct contribution of the Dominions to the allied cause, and how have the troops of the Dominions acquitted themselves? It was my privilege last summer to see something of these troops and their work.

## SOUTH AFRICA.

I saw no finer looking body of men than the veteran troops from South Africa. Practically every man had seen service in German Southwest Africa, and after the conquest of that country had enlisted for service in Europe. What a magnificent tribute it is to British institutions, to our ideals of freedom and self-government, that the men who, scarce more than fifteen years ago, were fighting in a life and death struggle for supremacy, are now fighting side by side on the continent of Europe, in defence of the flag and for the preservation of the liberties, the free institutions and the integrity of our Empire. I do not believe you will find in all history a more magnificent demonstration of the readiness of democracy to respond to liberty than we have in South Africa in this struggle. Never did the British people display greater faith in democracy and in the principles of freedom and self-government, than when they granted self-government to South Africa, and never did faith receive a richer reward!

When the war broke out, the Government of General Botha was faced with a Nationalist movement which did not content itself with protesting against the Government participating in the war, but carried its protest to the extent of armed rebellion. General Botha, with undaunted courage, and with a resolution and ability which do infinite credit to one of the greatest men of our Empire, speedily crushed the rebellion, carried the war into German Southwest Africa, which had inspired the rebellion, and in the space of a few months added to the British Empire a territory larger than Germany itself. Then, turning to German Southeast Africa, the citizen soldiers of South Africa, aided by some troops from Great Britain, all under the command of General Smuts, have practically conquered that great German colony, and in a short time it will be added to the South African Dominion. They raised thousands of men in South Africa to achieve those objectives, and, in addition, they have now sent men across the sea, who, on the fields of France and Flanders, are fighting with the other soldiers of the Empire in the defence of the liberties of Europe and of the world.

South Africa, according to the census of 1911, had a European population of 1,275,000. Her total enlistments for her expeditionary forces—that is, for actual participation in the war—number approximately 70,000. She has had over 60,000 engaged in actual

service either in German Southwest Africa, German Southeast Africa, or in Europe. She has already expended in the war \$130,000,000, and her average daily war expenditure at the present time is approximately \$60,000. When you consider that all this has been done by a people with a total European population of only a little over a million and a quarter, say half Briton and half Boer, perhaps more Boers than Britons, who some fifteen years ago were warring against each other, I am sure every citizen of Canada feels that we should pay a tribute to the courage, the fidelity and the unselfish service of the men of the South African Dominion, and particularly to that great man, General Botha, who has led the country in this struggle.

#### AUSTRALIA.

The Australians have a magnificent record in this war. We all know the courage and sacrifice of the gallant Anzac troops in the Gallipoli campaign; the months of patient and heroic service in an almost impossible position under the incessant fire of the Turks, with the greatest difficulty in getting supplies or even water to drink, with sanitary conditions worse than any other section of our line, unless in Mesopotamia; without grumbling or protest they fought on week after week, month after month, until the order came to withdraw. And then, without complaint or reproach, they withdrew and took their places in other sections of the line, where they have fought with the same courage and heroism and with glorious success.

The Australian soldiers are somewhat taller and more wiry in appearance than our Canadians. They wear a distinctive hat—a soft felt—a distinguishing mark wherever they go. The New Zealand troops also wear a somewhat similar hat. You always know an Anzac wherever you see him. Australia had an estimated population, in 1914, of 4,900,000. She had enlisted for her expeditionary force up to the 1st of February, 1917, approximately 350,000 men. She had despatched overseas up to the same date approximately 300,000. It takes a ship about four times as long to make the return trip between Australia and Great Britain as it does between Canada and Great Britain. Australia is, therefore, deserving of very special credit for having sent so large a percentage of her enlisted men overseas. When I was at the front, Australia was maintaining five divisions—four in France and one in Egypt.



Australia's war expenditure, up to the 1st day of February of this year—the actual expenditure for the fiscal years of 1915 and 1916, and the estimated expenditure for the portion of the fiscal year 1917—was \$500,000,000. Her present average daily war expenditure is \$1,150,000. This is a great contribution of men and money for a nation of less than 5,000,000 people.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

New Zealand, with an estimated population, in 1914, of 1,100,000, had enlisted up to the same period approximately 75,000. She has sent overseas approximately 65,000, and is maintaining one division at the front. New Zealand's total war expenditure up to the 1st of February of the present year is estimated at \$112,000,000, and her present estimated daily war expenditure is \$200,000.

The New Zealand troops are not so tall as the Australians. They look more like our Canadians. One could not wish to look upon a finer body of men than the New Zealand troops. As part of the Anzac corps they have shared with Australians all the hardships and triumphs of Gallipoli, Egypt and the Somme.

It is said the Anzacs are in many respects very like the Canadians. They are not quite so amenable to discipline as are the regular troops of the British army. In fact, they give the Australians credit for being a little harder to discipline than our Canadian troops, and they tell some very interesting stories of discipline in the Australian army. I am told it is sometimes difficult to get an Australian private, who has occupied a position in the homeland superior to his officer, to salute him always with the deference that is expected from every private in the British army. But, whether this be true or not, when it comes to actual fighting, the troops from Australia and New Zealand have shown dash and enthusiasm, and have achieved such successes, that they have immortalized the name Anzac and given to Australia and New Zealand a new place in the world.

(The Governments of Australia, New Zealand and South Africa do not publish the official figures of enlistments or of the numbers sent overseas, and one has to secure the best available information from these countries, but I believe the figures I have given are approximately correct and can be relied on.)

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

Newfoundland, the smallest and oldest of Britain's overseas dominions, has also played a worthy part in the conflict. With an estimated population of 250,000, she has enlisted for overseas service in the army, up to the 1st of February, 1917, 3,300. She had actually sent overseas, at that date, 3,100. Newfoundland maintains one battalion at the front that has a record of which its people may be justly proud. She has undertaken to provide monthly reinforcements of 150 men for this battalion, but her main contribution in men has been to the Imperial Naval Service.

## INDIA.

While India is not a self-governing Dominion, yet she occupies such an important place in the Empire and has made such a noble contribution, both in men and money, to the Empire's cause, we should pause to pay a tribute to her and to her loyal and devoted sons who have shed their blood in the cause of liberty. India has won for herself a new place in our Empire, and her voice must be heard in the councils of the Empire. I wish I could give you the figures of her enlistments and expenditures, but I have been disappointed in securing the most recent information.

## CANADA.

Coming to our own country—Canada—we had an estimated population in 1914 of approximately 8,000,000. Up to the first of February, 1917, we had enlisted in our expeditionary forces for overseas service 391,600 men. We had sent overseas up to that date 284,400. You will see our enlistments exceed those of Australia, but the number actually despatched overseas is slightly less than Australia. You may be interested in knowing the figures for Canada up to date. We had actually enlisted, up to the 1st of April in our expeditionary forces, 407,300, and we had actually despatched overseas, up to the same date, 298,140. Our enlistments exceed those who have gone overseas by approximately 110,000. We should not, however, understand that we have 110,000 men in Canada, or anything like this number. Our figures of enlistments include all who have been discharged in Canada since enlistment because of physical unfitness, or who have deserted, or who have been released from service for any cause. We should have to reduce our figures.

probably by over 70,000, in order to get at the enlistment of those in Canada actually available for effective service overseas.

We now maintain four divisions at the front, and it has been suggested in the press that we are likely to send over a fifth, which is now in training in England. We will certainly have to provide some better method of securing reinforcements than that now being adopted, or we shall be unable to maintain another division in the firing-line; in fact, unless we receive reinforcements much more rapidly than we are securing them to-day, we shall not be able to maintain four divisions in the firing-line. This situation the people of Canada must frankly face, and it is imperative we should face it without delay.

Nowhere did I find greater appreciation of our Canadian troops than among their Anzac comrades-in-arms. Both Australian and New Zealand officers told me that when they were in Egypt completing their training they read the story of the stand of the Canadians at St. Julien, in the second battle of Ypres, and how, by their valor, they had saved the day, and they said to themselves: "When we go into battle we must equal the Canadians." Our Canadians at St. Julien set the standard for the troops of the oversea Dominions, and how magnificently they have all measured up to it!

Canada's expenditure on the war, up to February 1st, 1917, was approximately \$500,000,000—almost exactly the same as that of Australia. Our war expenditure at the present time is estimated at \$1,000,000 per day. We have nearly 300,000 workers engaged in the manufacture of munitions for the Imperial Government, in 630 factories, in the different provinces of Canada. The value of munitions actually shipped, up to the present time, is approximately over \$400,000,000. This whole industry has been developed since the war broke out. Canada also has loaned the Imperial Treasury \$200,000,000 to assist in financing the munition business in Canada.

Of the valor and achievements of our own troops I have spoken on so many occasions since my return from Europe, that I shall not dwell upon the subject to-night, except to say that from soldiers and civilians alike, both in Great Britain and France, I heard the most unqualified words of appreciation. All these comments might be summed up in the words of Mr. Asquith—"No soldiers have fought better, none could have fought better." Their great appeal to us is to send more men, not to relieve them so that they may return home,

but to take their places when they fall in the fight, and to carry the flag on to victory. As a grateful people we pay our tribute to-night to our gallant Canadian troops.

In addition to the forces which I have given you, Australia has her own navy, which, on the 30th April, 1915, numbered in its service 9,423, including reserves. New Zealand also has made her contribution to the navy, and Canada had enlisted in the Canadian Naval Service, up to January, 1917, 3,310 men.

These contributions, both in men and money, from the different portions of the Empire, represent an effort on the part of the Dominions which, five years ago, would have been considered impossible. While we should do more, it is but right that we should recognize that we have done vastly more than would have been thought feasible by anyone in any portion of the Empire a few years ago. But in this respect we do not differ from any other country at war. For every one of these countries has put forth efforts in this struggle which, before the war, would have been thought impossible. Every nation has been compelled, in the intensity of the struggle, to excel itself.

In order that you may have the matter before you in more concrete form, let me recapitulate what I have already stated:

#### WAR CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE DOMINIONS.

Dominions	Estimated Population, 1914 (Exclusive of native races)	Total Enlistments For Exped'y. Forces up to Feb. 1st, 1917.
Canada .....	8,000,000	391,600
Australia .....	4,900,000	350,000
New Zealand .....	1,100,000	75,000
South Africa .....	1,275,000 (1911)	70,000
Newfoundland .....	250,000	3,300

Dominions	Total Exped'y. Forces Dispatched up to February 1st, 1917.	Troops in Battle-Line
Canada .....	284,000	4 Divisions
Australia .....	300,000	5 Divisions
New Zealand....	60,000	1 Division
South Africa....	60,000	1 Brigade in Europe, balance in Africa
Newfoundland .....	3,100	1 Battalion



Dominions	Total War Expenditure to February 1st, 1917.	Present Average Daily War Expenditure.
Canada .....	\$500,000,000	\$1,000,000
Australia .....	500,000,000	1,150,000
New Zealand .....	112,000,000	200,000
South Africa .....	130,000,000	60,000

## GOVERNMENTAL CHANGES.

When the war broke out, a Liberal Government was in power in Australia, but the Labor party held a majority in the Senate. A difference arose between the Government and the Senate, with the result that a new election was held and the Labor party was returned to power. They immediately formed a War Committee, composed of an equal number of men from each party, and all important proposals in connection with the war were submitted to this committee for its advice. This situation continued until after the referendum on conscription, which resulted in the defeat of the measure and the secession from Mr. Hughes, the Prime Minister and leader of the Labor party, of a substantial section of his supporters. Mr. Hughes and the leader of the Liberal party have now formed a Coalition Government; and they now have a National or War Government in Australia, composed of Liberal and Labor members, opposed by that section of the Labor party which repudiated Mr. Hughes' leadership.

Australia had put into the field five divisions. In order to maintain that force in the field, they required, according to the estimatees prepared by the military authorities, reinforcements of 16,500 men per month. Notwithstanding the magnificent response made by the people of Australia under the voluntary system, supplemented as it was by a compulsory registration, the Prime Minister, Mr. Hughes, reached the conclusion that they could not maintain a continuous stream of reinforcements at the rate of 16,500 per month, without conscription. His Government was divided on the issue, but they agreed in submitting the matter to the vote of the people. The vote was against conscription, and Australia is still continuing to raise her reinforcements by voluntary enlistment, based upon compulsory registration. It may be that she will not be able to keep up the reinforcements on a scale adequate to maintain her existing divisions at the front. If this should happen, she must

either withdraw some of her divisions or devise some other method of securing reinforcements. Voluntary enlistment has been greatly aided by their compulsory national registration, and from the lists of men of military age thus compiled they have by direct governmental appeal and by efficient organization secured their reinforcements.

Australia and New Zealand, as you know, are very democratic countries. We sometimes call the government of Australia socialistic; but most governments during this war have gone further in exercising governmental power and authority in the management of commercial and industrial affairs in the interests of the whole people than they have ever done before. They all have gone very much further than has our government in Canada.

The government of Australia last year purchased all the wheat grown in Australia. They have undertaken to purchase all the wheat grown this year. They have purchased and are operating a fleet of merchant ships to market their products. They expelled all German mining interests from Australia, and took control of their mining properties. The Government has taken over the management of many important enterprises in Australia, and has exercised a very direct influence in controlling the affairs of the country during this war period.

The New Zealand Government has to some extent followed the same course. They had an election in the early part of 1915, which resulted in the parties being about evenly divided in the House. They then formed a War Government, composed of the leading men of both parties, and this Government is now aggressively carrying on the war. They have had compulsory national registration, and they have now adopted conscription, and are raising at the present time their necessary reinforcements by draft. They have also taken action in connection with the food supplies of the people, and the Government has otherwise intervened in the management and control of the nation's activities so as to ensure the most effective prosecution of the war, and at the same time conserve the country's interests at home. New Zealand is very prosperous at the present time by reason of her great production of meat, wool and dairy products and the high war prices at present prevailing.

The South African Party, led by General Botha, was in power in

South Africa when the war broke out. Prior to the war, General Hertzog left the government of General Botha on account of differences of opinion on the relations of South Africa to the Empire. Hertzog formed a Nationalist group, and in the general election of 1915 the Nationalists secured a large number of seats in the House. General Botha does not now command a majority of the House, but carries on the government by the co-operation and support of Sir Thomas Smart and the members of the Unionist Party. The South African and Unionist parties are working together in order that South Africa may do her part in this war.

Canada is one of the very few countries at war which so far has not made any very radical changes in its Government.

#### FRANCE.

I found in France the greatest gratitude for the part Canada is taking in this struggle. Man after man said, "It is wonderful, it is wonderful, what the Canadians have done." France looks upon Canada with the warm affection of a parent for a child, and Canada's contribution has deeply touched her heart. France has poured out her own life's blood with unstinted hand that France and liberty may live, and she is as generous in her appreciation of the contributions of our Dominions as she is in her own sacrifices. She naturally looks with peculiar affection and gratitude on the service of the French-Canadians at the front; and no battalion in the Canadian forces has a finer record than the gallant 22nd, which has written such a glorious page in our history.

#### THE UNITED KINGDOM.

I have spoken thus far of the part of the Dominions in this war, but I cannot close without saying something of the wonderful achievements of the Mother Country in this titanic struggle. She certainly has achieved the impossible. This is true in the number of men she has enlisted, in the output of her guns and munitions, in the work of her army and navy, in her ocean transport, and in her financial contributions. With a population of approximately 46,000,000, she has already enlisted over 5,000,000 for her army and navy, and she is now calling for 500,000 more before the 1st July next. She has not only largely to provide her own supply of guns and munitions, but she is making most important contributions of guns and munitions to her allies. She is providing coal and large

quantities of steel for France and Italy. She is munitioning and financing both Belgium and Serbia. She is sending great quantities of war supplies to Russia. She is bearing her own unprecedented war obligations, and is at the same time guaranteeing and providing the money to pay for the supplies purchased on this continent for her allies—Russia, France and Italy. She is bearing the financial burden of the war, and providing transport services, not only for herself, but largely for her allies as well. Were it not for the burden which Great Britain has assumed, and which she is cheerfully and uncomplainingly carrying, the war would have long since ended in irretrievable disaster. It is because of the burden Great Britain is carrying, because of the efforts she is putting forth, that it is possible for us, if we continue to do our duty to the end, to look forward with confidence to the future and to victory at the close of this terrific struggle.

#### THE DOMINIONS AND THE MOTHERLAND.

Mr. Asquith, former Prime Minister of Great Britain, said to me that Great Britain could not have achieved what she has in this struggle but for the encouragement and support she received from the Dominions overseas. The spontaneous co-operation of the Dominions, their generous offers of men, supplies and money, have stirred the heart of the Motherland as it has never been stirred before. The action of the Dominions has quickened enthusiasm, stimulated energy and strengthened the will of the people of Great Britain, so that they have put forth efforts and achieved results which seem little short of miraculous. This has not been due wholly to the actual contributions we have made, but in no small measure to the moral effect of the contributions. It has been an inspiration to the people of Great Britain to know that the free Dominions of the Empire, without any compulsion, without even an appeal, have such a deep love and affection for the Motherland and for the cause of liberty for which she is fighting, and such a resolute determination to preserve free government and democratic institutions against the menace of Prussian militarism, that they would stake their whole future on the common cause and co-operate, to the measure of their ability, to secure victory.

It has been well pointed out this evening that we have builded in Canada more wisely than we knew. In the great work of Confed-



eration we paved the way for the confederation of the Australian colonies, and later for the union of the South African colonies. It is because we have Canadian, Australian and South African confederations, strong and resourceful new nations, that the Dominions have been able to make so great a contribution in this struggle. If victory, and decisive victory, is achieved, one of the determining factors undoubtedly will be the participation of the Dominions in the war.

The war will have a great effect upon Canada itself, as well as upon all the other Dominions. From the East, from the West, and from the Centre, the common service of the men of Canada—fighting side by side in the same battalions, nursed back to life and health in the same hospitals—should form a bond of union which will bind together our Provinces as they have never been bound before, and the common service and sacrifice of the men of the Overseas Dominions with the men of the Motherland should bind together the free nations of our Empire as never before.

While we shall maintain our autonomy and our self-government, our right to manage our own affairs, the men of Canada who have fought shoulder to shoulder with the men of Newfoundland, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and of England, Ireland and Scotland, will come back to us with a broader view of what our Empire stands for, with a new sense of its essential unity, and with the resolute determination to maintain that unity throughout all the days that lie before us.

They will undoubtedly ask and receive a larger voice in shaping the future of Canada within the Empire than Canada has hitherto enjoyed.

In this war the Dominions have swung out into the full current of the world's life, and whether we welcome the prospect or regret it, we can never swing back again. May our voice ever be heard in the councils of the Empire and among the nations, for liberty, justice and honorable peace.

#### VIMY RIDGE.

We have been greatly heartened by the news which has come to us during the past two days. Some thought, when the report first reached us of what our Canadians had achieved at the second battle of Ypres, that possibly the mother country, its statesmen and mili-

tary leaders, out of the goodness of their hearts, and because of their appreciation of Canada's effort, had praised the service and courage of our troops at least up to the full measure of their desserts. I wish to say to you that, when across the sea this past summer, I learned from British statesmen and British officers, from French statesmen and French officers, of the valor and achievements of our troops in the second battle of Ypres. From one and all I heard exactly the same story—the most unqualified praise of the service they had rendered. I do not believe one word too much has been said of what our Canadians accomplished on that great occasion. Now they have shown in the capture of Vimy Ridge—the vital point in the German system of defence, which had resisted capture by the finest troops of France for months—that the sons of Canada, from our farms, from our offices and from our factories, unaccustomed to war and to bearing arms, accustomed only to the ways of peace, for the love of home, of Canada and freedom, defeated the finest troops of Germany and won the day once more for the Allies and for liberty. Our men at the front have made a new place for Canada in the Empire and among the nations of the world.

Canada is now passing through one of the most critical and yet one of the most inspiring hours of her history. She threw herself into this struggle for human liberty with unanimity and enthusiasm which stirred Britain, France and America. Her sons have won for Canada imperishable glory on the battlefields of Europe, but the cause of liberty is not yet secure. Further efforts and further sacrifices are urgently needed. If we are to preserve our children and our children's children from a repetition of the horrible crimes and bloodshed of the past three years, Prussian militarism must be decisively defeated and liberty and democracy guaranteed for the future.

It may be that in the intensity of the struggle the contributions which the Dominions of the Empire can make to the Allied cause may prove the decisive factor. We may strike a blow at this time for liberty and humanity which will resound around the world. If we have the ability and fail to use it, we must accept responsibility for the disaster which may follow. If we have the ability and use it, future generations will bless the men and women of this day for the noble service they have rendered.

The call comes to every Canadian, no matter what his racial

origin, to be worthy of Canada, the cause of liberty and the gallant men who have gone across the sea to fight for us. Our men at the front have proven themselves equal to all the tasks imposed upon them. The question which faces us is, will we prove equal to the tasks which face us at this critical hour—the tasks of organizing the whole nation for a supreme national effort to achieve victory; to secure greater production so that the armies may be fed and the people at home not suffer want; to practise thrift and economy, so that there may be no unnecessary waste, and that every dollar may make its contribution toward winning the war; to require wealth to bear its full share of the burden; and to insure that the reinforcements so urgently needed shall be made available?

Do we realize that the world faces the possibility of a food famine at the end of the year, unless larger crops are grown throughout the world? Do we appreciate that every additional pound of foodstuffs grown this year may prove a valuable contribution to the cause of the Allies?

I am aware, Mr. Chairman, that many people say it is irritating to talk of further production under the conditions which prevail in reference to farm labor. We should put forth every possible effort to meet the labor situation. Agricultural interests are deserving of the greatest sympathy and support in their efforts at greater production under grievous handicaps; but we should not hesitate to speak out and declare the situation as we see it. Better irritation than starvation. Better for us all to face the situation frankly and courageously, and to point out that he who can produce, and does not, may be aiding the enemy and diminishing our chances for final victory; while he who adds to his production is rendering a great and worthy patriotic service. He who lavishly wastes his money at this time, when money is so urgently needed to win the war, is also, unconsciously no doubt, aiding the enemy and diminishing our chances for final victory. We should seek to save where saving is possible, and invest in the war loan, or apply our savings in some way that will help to carry on the war work.

Wealth in this country has not yet been called upon to bear its proper share of the burden. We should have a progressive income tax without delay on a basis commensurate with the need.

Have we any adequate appreciation of the sacrifices of our men at the front, or of how urgently they need reinforcements? I am

afraid we are only half awake at the present time to the whole war situation. Did not Sir William Robertson say the other day that the German army was never so strong as it is at this time? She has a million more men now than she had last year. Germany is not yet defeated. We cannot defeat her unless we send more men to the front to reinforce our gallant men who are there.

During last summer our men were compelled to fight with their ranks seriously depleted. Battalions five hundred, six hundred, seven hundred, eight hundred strong, had to do a whole battalion's duty in that hell of conflict at the Somme, because we had not sufficient men in Great Britain who had completed their training adequately to reinforce the men in the battle line. We now have sufficient men to provide reinforcements for the immediate future; but if the war continues for another year—and who is prepared to say that it will not—before the expiration of the present year we shall face exactly the same situation that we faced last year. Are we to permit the work of these gallant men to fail because the men at home do not respond to the call at this hour? We must back up the men at the front, and be prepared to take whatever measures are necessary to do so.

To-night we acclaim our gallant Canadians who went over Vimy Ridge on Monday morning, and who are still pursuing the foe. We express our heartfelt sympathy with the wives, the parents and the children of those noble men who have fallen during the past few days.

Rupert Brooke, before he made the supreme sacrifice, beautifully expressed for us the service and sacrifice of the young men who have died for their country:

“These laid the world away: poured out the red  
Sweet wine of youth: gave up the years to be  
Of work and joy, and that unhopèd serene,  
That men call age; and those who would have been,  
Their sons, they gave, their immortality.

“Blow, bugles, blow! They brought us, for our dearth,  
Holiness, lacked so long, and Love and Pain;  
Honor has come back, as a king, to earth,  
And paid his subjects with a royal wage;  
And Nobleness walks in our ways again,  
And we have come into our heritage.”

Will we prove worthy of this heritage?



## PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

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### *PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

#### LEADERSHIP.

MARTIN KERR, B.A., PRINCIPAL, EARL KITCHENER SCHOOL,  
HAMILTON.

The Imperial Dictionary defines Leadership as "the office of a leader; guidance." The Standard Dictionary says, "the office or position of a leader: guidance; ability to lead." What is a leader? One who knows the road, who can keep ahead and can draw others after him.

The history of the human race shows that leadership has been an essential of progress. Of outstanding Bible characters were Moses, Joshua, Saul, David. The records show that these men were all "called" to the positions they held. They were chosen as strong men, called to differing positions, to lead the Israelites under difficult and trying conditions.

Profane history records such names as Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar, Columbus, Walpole, Howard, Wilberforce, all controlled by some impelling motive of personal ambition, or public service.

If we recognize modern conditions, we must realize that leadership in all the various lines of life is demanded, and demanded by these conditions; leadership in political life, recognizing that unless the light of its legislation and the justice of its administration shine upon the cottage equally as well as upon the mansion, and so make the people a free, a contented and a happy nation, it is but a will o' the wisp, enticing only to despair; leadership in commercial life by men, captains of industry, whose earnings are only an incidental in their toil, and that serve to open up highways to the better civilization of the race; leadership in the realm of arts, science, letters, ideas; in the home, in the church, in the school; capable, with the tremendous forces lying at hand, of working modern miracles, so

that peace and prosperity, righteousness and wisdom may cover the earth as the waters cover the great deep.

The political parties are seeking the leader of vision, and this fact has no small significance to the "boss" and professional politician, but leadership there must be.

The church is neither dead nor dying, but its forces need wiser and less selfish directing, and leadership is demanded.

Not money, but men; not statistics, but dynamics; not how many we can enlist, but how much we can enlist in the enterprise. Li Hung Chang once said: "There are only three classes of people: there are those that are immovable; there are those that are movable; and there are those that move them." And the third class are the leaders, those that really lead in the sense that the course of history would have been essentially different had they not lived.

Wherever there is community life, there is required leadership of a master mind, a noble inspiration, and a high resolve. And every teacher is a leader called to a great work. Called by the material rewards? No! By the lightness of the labor? Oh, no! Has some woman slipped into the work hoping to leave it in two or three or four years? Has some man drifted along into and in the work? The pity of it for themselves and the profession. We have all seen such—those who wanted this leadership, but held back part of the price, carried out dead like Annanias and Sapphira, because they were not true.

Leadership does not depend upon geographical position. That is well worth remembering. Some of our best leaders among the teachers have remained in but one community, and they may continue to direct the thought and energy and moral life of their community in a supremely successful way.

Nor does this leadership depend upon wealth or social position or prestige. Think of Richard Lloyd, the cobbler-preacher.

What, then, is the price of leadership? The first price of leadership is *vision*, the vision that sees the boy of the classroom grown into an intelligent, clean, industrious citizen. But vision alone only makes a man visionary. When Moses saw the burning bush, he did not write poetry. He went and led the people through the wilderness. If we catch a vision we must put that vision in our classroom, and start to realize it, and whether, as the Superintendent

of Education or teacher in S.S. No. —, Nipissing, we can shape the thought and ideals of the community.

The next price of leadership is *knowledge*. Men rise to leadership because they know. Moses learned all the wisdom of the Egyptians; Paul was trained to a great philosopher. The greatest foe to business leadership is superficiality. A man who does not know banking will never be a banker. The banker is the man who begins that subject and studies it until he is a financier. It is the Edison in electricity who knows; the Beethoven in music who knows; the Michael Angelo in art who knows. I tell you it is sheer ignorance on the part of a lot of us that keeps us from the leadership we should occupy.

And there are passion and sacrifice that are facts in leadership, and it is in the latter where leaders particularly fail. The biggest man, after all, is the man who will sacrifice money, property, time, energy, life in instalments of weary days and weary nights, and sleepless nights and toiling days.

The real teacher is really called in the name of sound education. And what is the very root of the problem alike for the home, for the school, for the nation? We can at best impart but little information, but we can direct the power to think, and we can direct the line of thought, and this is the question, the supreme question—making clear, definite and authoritative the moral elements in life.

That question is of prime importance, at once for the individual, for society, for the nation. It suggests to the teacher three questions of the profoundest ethical value:

1. The question of moral distinctions; there is a right and there is a wrong; there is a difference between the right and the wrong.

2. The question of moral obligations; the right must be done and the wrong must not be done.

3. The question of moral rewards and retributions; inevitable moral consequents follow the doing of the right and the doing of the wrong.

Let me quote: "The greatest tragedy of this awful war is not the bloodshed and the horror of the trenches, and the gruesomeness of the war-swept battlefields. All these are hideous beyond compare. But more ghastly still is the unimagined moral suicide alike of men

and of nations, in which the eternal moral distinctions are obliterated, the moral obligations denied, and the moral issues utterly confused.

“What is true for Germany is true for Britain. The law of the Nature of Things is no respecter of nations. Canada has no immunity. The schools of Canada are the seed-plots of ideas. What is sown in the classrooms of the young will be reaped in the citizenship of the middle-aged. In the moral world, like seed like harvest. The men and women in the Teachers’ Institute are immeasurably more important to the life of the nation than are the members of Parliament and the official exponents of the Law.

And the fact of the war has only made the task of the school the more perilous. The strain on the school as the guardian and inspirer of the nation’s ideals and life is severer and more critical than Canada ever dreamed or feared. The soul of the nation calls loudly to the teachers. And the crown of fidelity to the nation’s greatest trust is for that teacher anywhere who stands firm and true in this time of testing and incalculable peril.

The newspapers of the world have reported the death of Richard Lloyd, and told the story of his life.

And who was Richard Lloyd? Let me quote again:

“Not one of the great world’s great men; not a multimillionaire. Nor yet was he born with that strange spell—a name. No door opened to him that answered only to the key of rank. In the world of politics he was not counted. None of the accidents of birth were on his side. He had nothing but an honest mind, a living personality, a clean conscience, a sense of duty—and a chance with a boy.

“Richard Lloyd accepted as a sacred and supreme duty the task of educating his widowed sister’s children. And one of those children, two years old when that task was accepted, was a toddling Welsh laddie, David Lloyd George. At the age of eighty-two Richard Lloyd died, and the whole British Empire spoke a blessing on his name. The lad for whose training he gave himself is the Prime Minister of the world’s greatest Commonwealth, and with worthy pride, Premier Lloyd George acknowledges his everlasting debt to the man who gave him his life start—the start of honest poverty, a love of truth, a sense of duty, and faith in the omnipotence of ideas.



“The omnipotence of ideas! And yet all about us are men who chase the false mirage of wealth, or the broken reed of office, or the vulgarized bauble of knightly name.

“Ideas may be his who has a mind to welcome them. The power of ideas is within the reach of whoever releases them. The coronation of ideas is the distinction awaiting any man who, in his own life, crown truth, and obeys duty and follows in the way of honorable service.

“The thing that came to Richard Lloyd was not strange. The only accident was the chance fact of the flash-light of publicity. The reality of it, the truth of it, the thing that endures and that is its inspiration is in his own splendid sense of the supremacy of ideas when wrought into character, and when touched with a vital personality's fire of fires.

“There really never is a Richard Lloyd but sometime and somewhere he has a chance at a Lloyd George. The conditions may not so meet that the blinded eyes of his own generation see the resultant. Many a teacher in the school of obscurity becomes faint-hearted because the ideas set free in the youthful minds do not at once come to flower and rich fruition. Fidelity and the faith that sees the invisible are the teacher's part. Results may be beyond his ken. But all experience sets its seal to the faith of Richard Lloyd, that no word of real truth spoken into the life of waiting youth, and no touch of living personality on the character of watching childhood is ever lost. But truth, being truth, every Richard Lloyd will one day see his Lloyd George.”

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### *THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE UNDER NEW CONDITIONS.*

E. S. HOGARTH, B.A., HAMILTON, PRESIDENT, ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE.

At the annual meeting of the O.E.A. in the year 1905, a Joint Committee from the Public School, College and High School, Training, and Kindergarten departments was appointed to investigate and report on the question of forming an organization for mutual help other than the informal Teachers' Associations in the inspectorates and the more representative O.E.A.

This committee reported favorably on the project at the following Easter meeting, and recommended that such an organization be formed. They also presented a draft constitution, which was largely embodied in the final Constitution of the organization, known as The Ontario Teachers' Alliance.

The primary objects were mutual improvements and protection, the providing a medium through which the teachers of the Province could give effective expression to their collective opinions on all educational questions, the providing a means by which those who administer our educational affairs might secure information and advice, based upon the experience of the associated teachers, and in every way further the co-operation of trustees and teachers in all educational interests. Further, to determine and control the qualification for entering the profession, to secure the adoption of an equitable Superannuation Scheme for the teachers of the Province, to secure the compilation of a comprehensive Register of the teachers of the Province, to afford advice in professional matters to individual members of the Union, and to give advice and assistance to them in legal cases of a professional nature, to extend protection to any of its members who might be wrongfully treated, also to exact from them the proper fulfilment of their professional engagements, to discipline any of its members found guilty of unprofessional conduct.

The Ontario Teachers' Alliance has been working along these lines for ten years, and has accomplished something in almost every

line of effort. The Register, known as "Schools and Teachers," through the sympathy and support given by the Education Department, has become an actuality, and is proving of immense value to our Public School teachers. This is being issued yearly by the Department, and is a mine of information regarding each school section in the Province. Professional advice has been given to a number of teachers who, through no fault of their own, have been placed in embarrassing circumstances, or been imposed upon, or who were merely in ignorance as to what course to pursue. The case which occurred at Midland last Easter is a case in point. I shall read the account of the case as reported in the *Lindsay Warder*:

"A case of special interest to school teachers and trustees was heard at Midland on Saturday last (October 7) before His Honor Judge Wiseman. It appears that at Easter last two teachers in the Public School (one of them from Lindsay), in order to catch the train for their home town, so that they might spend Eastertide under the parental roof, left the school at 3 o'clock instead of 4, as usual, which the Board claimed was contrary to orders. The School Board held that the teachers had disobeyed orders, and were consequently dismissed.

"As a matter of fact, one teacher dismissed school at 3 o'clock, according to a long-established custom regarding primary rooms, while the other teacher did not dismiss school until 4 o'clock, as she left a legally qualified teacher in her place from 3 to 4 o'clock.

"On being dismissed the teachers took the matter up with the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, and were advised that they had acted in accordance with their rights and legally.

"The case of the first teacher was heard on September 7, and the other teacher on October 7, the result being that Judge Wiseman exonerated the teachers and reprimanded the School Board for hasty and wrongful dismissal of the teachers. He held that the teachers did not disobey orders, but left school with the full knowledge and approval of the principal. His Honor further said that his sympathies were entirely with the teachers, and he therefore allowed them their two months' salary and expenses, the School Board to pay all costs of court. The case, he said, was entirely one-sided, and only one trustee was called on to give evidence, although the other trustees were present."

This is an illustration of the need for the work of the O.T.A. to be carried on still, and, as we hope, under the ægis of the O.E.A.

Some teachers have applied to the O.T.A. for assistance, and have received the answer that, in the opinion of the O.T.A., they had no grievance that the O.T.A. could help them in, as they were contributing to the condition themselves. The Executive has tried to preserve a just attitude throughout.

The Superannuation Scheme, which was one of its chief objectives, has had its constant support, and the Alliance can claim some credit for the successful propaganda which has finally crowned the efforts of the Main Superannuation Committee.

The O.T.A. has in a large measure failed to unite the teachers, as was expected, into a body for mutual support and consultation. Many of the teachers seem to feel—and some have stated—that they do not need the assistance of other teachers.

The Executive has felt for some time that the aims of the O.E.A. and O.T.A. were in many respects identical, and that the one general organization should do all the work, as it seemed to be duplicating machinery. With this object in view, a Joint Committee from the two bodies was appointed and have endeavored to work out a satisfactory basis, by means of which a special committee, elected by the O.E.A. at its annual meeting, should work under the control of the O.E.A., and thus widen its present sphere of usefulness along the lines suggested above.

Another question has been emphasized in the recent vote asked for by the Government on the Superannuation Scheme. The Government and the Committee were disappointed at the opposition and the indifference displayed by so many teachers; and a reason should be sought and found. It has at least shown that the teachers are not a united body, and have not one purpose, for the advocacy of the Superannuation Scheme was not a wholly selfish one. At any rate, the majority of the young teachers were not interested in such a scheme; that is to say, they did not think it was going to concern them personally; or, in other words, they did not expect to continue in the so-called profession long enough to personally reap any advantage from it. Are they wholly to blame? Have we older teachers shown any interest in them? Have they not—at least the majority of them—become teachers as a matter of course, because so



many of our pupils at our High Schools have done so in the past to make enough money to enable them to enter some other more lucrative profession, or to temporarily occupy themselves, and, while unmarried, lay by a little money for what may be ahead of them? All this assisted by the fact that when a pupil reaches the Third Form in our High Schools there seem to be only two courses open: the teachers' and the University, and naturally the teachers' course leads most readily to a return of money—the training being gratis. Hence so many are carried on the tide into the teachers' ranks, almost purposeless. This has created the problem, but it has not solved it. We, the older teachers, should have taken greater interest in the young teachers entering the ranks; we should have given them the benefit of our experience; we should have inspired them with our ideals—and our ideals should have risen as we have lived and served—for, as I have said before, the teacher's life is essentially one of service. We should have removed stones from their pathway; we should have smoothed the grades that they had to make; we should have taken them by the hand and said: There is an expansive tableland up here, where the vista widens and where the noblest purposes of life may find realization—for can anyone ask higher reward than that that has come to every faithful teacher who has received the "I owe my inspiration, my success in life to you." We have just read in our daily press of the tribute paid to a very humble citizen of Wales, one who was content simply to do his duty that another might have opportunities, denied to him. Is this not the lesson of the Great Teacher? I read from the *London Times*:—

"The body of Richard Lloyd, uncle and foster-father of the Prime Minister, was laid to rest in the village cemetery at Criccieth," writes a *Times* correspondent.

"Until a few weeks ago few people in the outside world knew of Richard Lloyd. For all that he will go down to history, not entirely with reflected fame, but for qualities and achievements of his own. For fifty years he was pastor to the little church of Criccieth, and in all that time, until his last illness, he missed but three Sundays at his pastor's desk. He led his congregation until three Sundays ago, when old age called him, and he took to his bed to die with a jest and a prayer on his lips.

"The Prime Minister walked behind the hearse, and with him were his son, Major Lloyd George, and his brother. The whole

attendance at the cemetery was not above a hundred people, and so simple was the ceremony that a stranger, coming on it unawares, would have missed its real significance. It was the very keynote of democracy. Here was the most highly placed man in the world's greatest Empire burying his foster-father and uncle, the village cobbler.

"Down in the village there was paid a tribute to the dead man such as few men that come out into the world ever receive. This man of sheltered life was known to all these simple folk, and they talked of him in honest superlatives. He was a man who might have made the same mark on the world as his foster-son, but he preferred to let his light illumine his own small circle. How many men can mould character as he did? How many men can set themselves to learn an unknown language alone, and then teach another? How many men can stint and save with one object, and that the making of another man?

"He has left his legacy in the being of another man, and he has left memories that will make this little village in the Welsh hills a place of pilgrimage in days to come.

"This uncle, Richard Lloyd, the village shoemaker of Llanystumdy, was a strong and lofty character, dwelling ever 'as in the Great Taskmaster's eye,' " says *The Observer*. "Those about him he influenced powerfully and for good. His religious faith was like an inspiration.

"He gave a beautiful devotion to his sister's orphaned children, and as the bright genius of one of them gave its signs, Richard Lloyd helped the boy with his studies, and fitted him to aim at no ordinary mark. Those years were the foundation of a career as romantic as any in political annals. No one can be much acquainted with the world and human character without realizing that some men and women, hardly known beyond a narrow circle, are as great in soul and natural capacity as those who conquer fame."

Many of our humble teachers have had experiences similar to that of Richard Lloyd.

We have not met the young teacher struggling with a multitude of problems with the helping hand that we should have, and this is one of the tasks I am placing upon you, the members of the Ontario Educational Association, to-day. The O.T.A. has done

much, but it has not been able to realize its ideal. Nor can we ever, for as we advance our ideals rise and widen and our opportunities increase.

The O.E.A., without question, represents the best thought, the best experience, the best ideals of the teaching body. The Board of Directors is composed of men and women representing every phase of education in the Province, and those who compose the Board, as a rule, are outstanding members of each section, those with experience and those in whom the various sections have confidence. What more fitting body could be chosen to advise and direct in the work of counsel to our teachers? Has not the process of division been carried at least as far as desirable in the O.E.A.? Should we not have some more effort made to make us feel that we are educationists rather than Kindegarteners or Classical Specialists? There is a danger lest we lose our perspective if we dwell only upon our own small sphere, important as that is; so we must preserve our perspective or we are not working in the best interests of the whole.

We believe we see the attainment of what has been a vision to many of us for several years: a tolerably satisfactory Superannuation Scheme, but we must keep a small committee to supervise and suggest as to its working out. We should have a representative Educational Organ in this Province, and that is a work to the attainment of which a committee should devote its efforts; for nothing will inform and unite teachers so thoroughly as a regular visitor of this kind to constantly present our ideas and suggestions to those who cannot, for example, attend this Easter session. I wish to make it perfectly clear that I am not casting any aspersions on any educational journal already published, for I fully appreciate what is being done; but there is a wider field either in conjunction with what is already being done or in another field.

If I might briefly summarize the work the O. T. A. has done in the past year, it will emphasize the fact that there is still work to do.

It has co-operated with the Government in the publishing and circulating of Schools and Teachers.

It has given counsel to a teacher who felt he had been slandered by some of the ratepayers and one of the trustees.

It gave counsel to another teacher who felt that she was being unfairly taxed, and who, on the advice being given, gladly paid the fee and joined the O.T.A.

The teachers in the Midland affair were advised to report for duty for a certain time, to show their good faith in trying to carry out their part of the agreement, and the Executive made a grant to help defray their legal expenses.

Now, these obligations, which we owe to the new teachers, the continuation of the work of assisting by wise counsel the unfortunate or the inexperienced, the supervision of the Superannuation Scheme, the upbuilding of our occupation into a profession, the taking an active part in legislation—that part being the embodiment of the combined wisdom of the O.E.A., and the publication of a representative organ seem to me to be work which the O.E.A. should assume to justify the preamble at the head of its Constitution, viz.: “to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching; and to promote the cause of education in Ontario.”

The means of working this out has been suggested in the recommendation of the Joint Committee, viz., the election at the annual meeting of the O.E.A. of a standing committee of eight members to take charge of this work—the committee to be known as the “Legislative and Rights Committee. Half the members of the committee to retire each year. The O.E.A. to be responsible for its expenses, much in the same way as it has been for the Superannuation Committee. The committee to be under the control of the O.E.A., and to have three representatives on the Board of Directors.

This, as I have said, should be a means of extending the effectiveness of the O.E.A., in harmony with its aims.

I would also recommend that an increased effort should be made to interest the teachers in general in the work carried on here—through the various Teachers’ Institutes, and that those asking for advice should be asked to join the O.E.A. at a nominal fee of 50 cents. That implies, of course, that all members of the O.E.A. should receive advice gratis. The matter comes up for consideration at this evening’s meeting, and I ask you, as the largest Section, to give it your sympathetic support.



*GOOD TEETH—GOOD HEALTH—GOOD CITIZENSHIP.*

WALLACE SECCOMBE, D.D.S., CHIEF DENTAL OFFICER OF SCHOOLS,  
TORONTO.

Recent health statistics, while indicating a decrease in diseases due to infection, show a marked increase in the diseases of the digestive tract. Dental disease is a disease of the digestive system and should not be considered as a condition governed by other laws or as something apart from the rest of the body. Of all the diseases of the digestive system, dental disease is certainly the most prevalent. Because of its almost universal occurrence, its astounding and ever-increasing prevalence, and its serious effects upon the general health, dental caries is rightly considered the most calamitous scourge of modern civilization.

The occurrence of dental disease has been concomitant with the advances of civilization. The people of this age are paying a tremendous price for their luxurious living and their deflection, in matters of diet, from the simple and natural, to the complex and artificial. To our discredit, it may be said, that immigrants who formerly lived upon a simple, wholesome diet, with little sugar, and who consequently were free from dental disease, generally develop dental caries quite rapidly when brought under the baneful influence of Canadian dietary habits.

Lack of thorough mastication, and over-indulgence in sugars, jams, syrups, candies, etc., are the two main factors which render the teeth and surrounding parts susceptible to disease. The use of the toothbrush is really an artificial means of attempting to overcome the unhygienic condition of the oral cavity, resulting from lack of mastication and over-indulgences in sweets. If dental disease is to be prevented we must get back to fundamentals. Toothbrush and dentifrice undoubtedly expiate the results of our indulgence, but we must learn to get back to first principles and remove the cause of modern dental conditions. This is the first and most important step in prevention.

Sugar is certainly quite indispensable to the body; but we sometimes forget that all of the starchy foods (flour, potatoes, white bread, cereals, etc.) are converted into sugar during the process of digestion, and are available to the body as such. When free

sugar is added, in such quantity as is consumed by the average person, we are over-indulging. The sweet-taste, the sugar-habit, soon grows, and the result is not only a glycosuria, but also an overflow of sugar from the general circulation into the saliva. The sugar element, thus returning to the mouth in nascent condition, exercises a most pernicious influence upon the teeth.

The main trouble is that our sugar consumption is not confined to the form in which nature intended (as in fruits, milk, vegetables, cane-sugar, etc.), but the pure sugar is extracted from natural foods, and is consumed in concentrated form. The popular taste for this extraction has so alarmingly increased that the world's supply of sugar-cane was inadequate for the demand. Consequently, thousands upon thousands of acres of land that might better be used for growing grains are used for the production of millions of tons of beets, not eaten in the natural way, but crushed and destroyed, for the purpose of extracting sugar, that this unfortunate and artificial taste of the "civilized" members of the human family may be gratified. As civilized beings, we are, in many things, to be sincerely pitied.

Statistics show that the people of England, Canada and the United States consume more sugar per capita than the people of any other nation. Our rate of consumption is twice that of France or Germany, three times that of Austria or Russia, five times that of Spain, and eight times that of Italy. The world's production of sugar is forty billion pounds per annum (twenty million tons), and of this stupendous amount, United States alone consumes four billion pounds per year, costing four hundred million dollars, and representing a consumption of eighty-five pounds per capita, per annum.

If the problem of dental disease is to be met adequately, it must be faced and dealt with as a preventive problem affecting the rising generation. While the question is certainly a health problem, it is also without doubt a matter of education. The word education is used in no narrow sense. Education is recognized to-day as the training and developing of boys and girls that they may, in due course, take their places as useful members of society. It has been said that "Education reaches its greatest usefulness when it functions in service to society." It is really a matter of training good citizens. And of all human agencies, the influence of the school teacher is certainly the most important in this regard.

From the standpoint of the prevention of dental disease, the influence of the school is a potent factor in the encouragement of good dental habits, of oral cleanliness, thorough mastication of food, and indulgence in much less sugar.

By thorough mastication of food, people could eat much less, get just as much nourishment from the smaller quantity, and avoid frequent digestive disturbances. At a recent meeting in this city, I made the statement that "this country could get along with one-third less food than it now consumes, and get just as much nourishment from the two-thirds, if people would chew their food properly." A newspaper reporter, with practical mind, capitalized this statement by stating that if one-third of Canada's food bill could be saved by thorough mastication, a national saving of some \$66,000,000 per annum would result. Though, at the time, the statement was treated in a spirit of levity, it was, later, shown to have practical significance by the fact that the Italian Minister of Agriculture was subsequently reported to have issued instructions to the people of Italy "to adopt the system of thorough mastication, as an aid in solving the national food shortage." The press dispatch stated that the method was being tried in the schools of Rome.

Mastication is nature's cleansing agent for the teeth, and thorough chewing of the food is an important factor in the maintenance of the dental organs in a condition of health and cleanliness. The teeth, if they are to obtain their proper blood supply, need exercise just as much as any other part of the body. By thorough mastication of food, a correct physiological flow of saliva is maintained, simultaneously with the ingestion of the food; and it is only under such conditions that the salivary secretion is thoroughly incorporated with the food, and thus able to perform its normal digestive action properly.

Gum chewing, however, is but an artificial substitute for mastication. It is a bad habit, causing an abnormal flow of saliva between meals; and if indulged in, throws the whole digestive process out of balance. Gum-chewing is a mental distraction, and should be persistently discouraged.

Twice the chewing and one-half the sweets is a splendid war-time motto for school children.

One of the most important of the recent discoveries of medical and dental science is that rheumatism, neuritis, heart trouble and

other systemic conditions are frequently due to an infection lodged about the root or roots of teeth. There may be neither pain nor soreness in these parts, and yet the X-ray clearly show unmistakable signs of a low form of infection, at the root of a tooth. Infection thus reaches the general circulation, and a manifestation of disease results, according to the part of the body attacked.

Under our compulsory system of education, we compel children to sit side by side in the classroom, though the dental or other physical condition of the one may render him a menace to the health of the other. And what of the teacher's health? In the average human mouth there are twenty-two square inches of dental surfaces, exclusive of tongue and tonsil. Thus, in a classroom of forty scholars there are almost six square feet of dental surface. With such an area, covered by food debris, in various stages of fermentation, with putrefaction and even pus, and with the air passing and repassing over those surfaces, and the imperfect classroom ventilation, is it any wonder that both teacher and scholars feel the effect of vitiated or even foul air?

It has been estimated (excluding those places where school dental clinics are in operation) that over ninety per cent. of the scholars attending school in the Province of Ontario have defective teeth. Not only are the teeth diseased, but in many cases the oral cavity is allowed constantly to remain in an unhygienic condition. Teeth are decayed and prematurely lost; mastication is impaired; irregularity of the teeth and dental deformity result; the general health suffers; and hours of pain are endured by the average school child, because of dental neglect.

Poorly nourished children are sickly and backward, mentally and physically. A child which is suffering physically cannot be expected to be alert mentally, and it is found that a great number of the children who are backward in school have defective teeth. These children are an expense on the community because they have to receive extra and special educational attention. The money which should be spent in caring for the physical needs of such children will be saved in the lessened cost of educating them; while the general health and capacity of the pupils will be improved.

Through the active co-operation of the teachers, parents, and school nurses, the school dental officers in Toronto have been able to



reduce the number of children with dental defects to fifty-one per cent. By recent legislative action, the direction of medical and dental work, in the schools of Toronto, is to be transferred from the Board of Education to the Department of Health. The local Health Officer, Dr. C. J. Hastings, fully appreciates the absolute necessity of co-operation with the teachers and school officers; and it is therefore expected that the Toronto school teachers will co-operate just as loyally under the new conditions as under the old.

The child is valued to-day as never before. The loss of manpower occasioned by the war places an increased value upon the boys and girls of to-day. They are our greatest national asset. There is no single factor so potent as oral hygiene, in maintaining the health, appearance, and comfort of the child. Experience has shown that oral cleanliness increases the individual self-respect and has a direct effect upon the child's general conduct and cleanliness. A well-kept set of teeth has come to be regarded as the hall-mark of culture and refinement.

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## THE KINDERGARTEN PRIMARY WHERE THERE IS NO KINDERGARTEN.

MISS ETHEL M. HALL, PRIMARY TEACHER, WESTON.

Every great biography is the record of the entrance into the world of a *new force*, bringing with it something different from all that was there before, and of the way it gradually gets itself incorporated with the *old*, so as to become a part of the *future*. Obviously, therefore, *two things* are needed by those who wish to understand it—*first, a clear comprehension of the nature of the new force itself; and, secondly, a view of that with which it is to be incorporated.*

Without the latter, the specific difference of the former cannot be understood, nor can the manner of its reception be appreciated—the *welcome* with which it is received or the *opposition* with which it has to struggle.

The Kindergarten-Primary has brought into the educational system *more that is original and destined to modify the future training of childhood* than anything which has ever entered it. But we can neither understand it, or the fortunes which it may encounter in seeking to incorporate itself into our school system without a clear view of the conditions in which it must work.

Hitherto we have had our Kindergartens introducing beauty and rhythm into the lives of little children. We have had our Primary Schools appealing to the mere practical-minded of our population.

The utilitarian age in which we are living cries out: "Why this waste of money, time and energy? Why not blend these two?" In answer to this appeal, I am here this morning to show the result of an effort to unify the courses of the Kindergarten and Primary.

Mary Queen of Scots said: "You will find 'Calais' written upon my heart." I think you will find 'Kindergarten-Primary' written upon mine. For upon nothing else in all my teaching experience have I put so much time and thought as upon the unification of the Kindergarten and Primary work in such a way as to utilize, as much as possible of the Kindergarten work and still accomplish the First Grade work.

This is no easy proposition, nor will the Kindergarten-Primary teacher's life be a "flowery bed of ease." Rhythmic work is not accomplished in a day. What appears so on the surface may be the result of hours and hours of strenuous thought.

It meant much to cast aside all former years of Primary experience and launch out upon a new and untried field of work—for it was absolutely untried as far as the Primary teacher is concerned.

I spent three years working out a scheme of unification before I attempted to try the experiment. My experience was something like that of the "Reed" in Mrs. Browning's Musical Instrument. You remember the lines:

"He tore out a reed, the great god Pan,  
From the deep, cool bed of the river;  
The limpid water turbidly ran,  
And the broken lilies a-dying lay,  
And the dragon-fly had flown away,  
Ere he brought it out of the river.

High on the shore sat the great god Pan,  
While turbidly flowed the river;  
And *hacked* and *hewed*, as a great god can,  
With his hard, bleak steel at the patient reed,  
*Till there was not a sign of leaf indeed*  
To prove it fresh from the river.

He cut it short, the great god Pan;  
(How tall it stood in the river!)  
Then *drew* the *pith* like, the *heart of a man*,  
Steadily from the outside ring,  
And notched the poor, dry, empty thing  
In holes, as he sat by the river.

'This is the way,' laughed the great god Pan—  
(Laughed, while he sat by the river)—  
The only way since gods began  
To make *sweet music* they can succeed."

So, like the reed, I faced Sept., 1916, the past of my Primary work discarded, and the future a mystery. Never again could I feel myself exclusively a Primary teacher, because I had become so

saturated with the Spirit of the Kindergarten that the only way I could continue in elementary work was by putting heart and soul into Kindergarten work.

Pan did not leave the Reed after he had stripped it of all its former glory.

“Dropping his mouth to a hole in the reed,  
He blew in *power*, by the river.”

Thus I found when I had severed my connection with my old-time Primary work, that the way opened out in a wonderful way. Difficulties vanished unexpectedly, and I was able to follow the vision of the work as I had seen it.

The year has been a happy one notwithstanding its strenuous nature, and has proved a wonderful success so far. I am convinced, without a doubt, that the Kindergarten Primary is THE course of study for pupils where no Kindergarten precedes.

At times the gravity of the responsibility of working out the unification of Kindergarten and Primary has been almost overwhelming, but I have felt the inspiration of minds greater than my own, and the love and sympathy of those in the first rank of the movement. Deliberately turning my back upon former years, I took as my motto Browning's inspiring lines:

“One who never turned his back,  
But marched breast forward.  
Never thought but clouds would break.  
Never dreamed, though right were routed wrong  
    would triumph.  
Held, we fall to rise,  
Are baffled, to fight better.”

What is this Kindergarten-Primary? It is *not* an old-time Primary room. And it certainly is *not* a Kindergarten, as it has been successfully operated where both exist. It is a correlated Kindergarten and Primary. The best of each course selected and blended into one, with the joy and sunshine of the Kindergarten permeating the more definite work of the Primary Grade. As yet there are no specific works upon Unification, so the Kindergarten-Primary teacher must read *widely*, and when she has perceived the vision of Unification, she must work toward her ideal.



Over and over again this year has the question been asked: "Why cannot any Primary teacher become a Kindergarten-Primary without special study?" I think I have answered the question fully by relating my own experience. Like Paul, "I was a Primary of the Primaries," and, like him, it took a blinding flash of light to make me see; and the vision came after a period of darkness, too. Nicodemus came to Christ with somewhat the same question in his mind: "What is this new doctrine you are preaching? Wherein does it differ from the old Jewish law? I am an Israelitish teacher of long standing. I represent the great Jewish Sanhedrin." Christ answered his thought with these words: "Ye must be born again." "How can these things be?" said Nicodemus. "Art thou a Master in Israel and understandest not?" said Christ. "It is a case of Spirit," said Christ. "Marvel not that I said unto you, Ye must be born again."

Just as the seed cast into the earth must die in order to live again, so the Primary teacher must die to her old work before she can become a Kindergarten-Primary teacher.

Someone remarked to me the other day: "But this Kindergarten-Primary is merely a question of 'Busy Work' in the Primary?" Most assuredly not! It means something far deeper than Busy Work.

The old idea of Busy Work was something given to keep little people out of mischief.

The New Education has changed the name of Busy Work to the Period of Independent Expression, which means vastly more, as it presupposes former development of work on the part of the teacher, and clear, definite ideas on the part of the pupil, which he expresses in this Free Period. These periods of "Independent Expression" are carefully supervised periods. The pupil is free to work out his own ideas, and the teacher can tell at a glance whether or not he understands the principle involved.

The problem of receiving pupils directly from the home is essentially different from that of the Kindergarten child entering the Kindergarten-Primary. Had I the power to prevent immature children from entering, I believe I should prefer those directly from the home. They are so eager and responsive. It is an inspiration to watch their faces each morning as they enter the room—

eager expectancy and happiness shining in their eyes. There is no self-consciousness apparent, but controlled spontaneity. The joy of the children has been a marvellous revelation to me this year.

The most strenuous parts of the course of study are presented in a happy play-spirit, and the child absorbs knowledge unconsciously.

In September we began with the First Gift, and by the 1st of December the pupils were quite ready for the Fifth and Sixth Froebel's Gifts.

Children from the home have never been familiar with the Gifts. We developed much language work with the First and Second Gifts. The Third and Fourth Gifts were an addition to our Number work, besides their value in Building. Of course the stress was laid upon the Fifth and Sixth Gifts, which the children *love*.

The addition of all Kindergarten material to the Kindergarten-Primary does not lighten work in Reading, Language and Number. Therefore the Kindergarten-Primary teacher must have a definite, systematic and far-reaching programme. That is where a Primary teacher has an advantage. Her systematized work in Reading aids her in covering the work rapidly. The Kindergarten-Primary Course is essentially a Reading and Language course, but the development of Number is not neglected. On the contrary, the psychological development of Number was never more thoroughly done than in the Kindergarten-Primary. The child uses all his senses—not merely the eye and ear. The sense of touch, which is a valuable aid to memory, is constantly in use.

Education has often been confused with verbal instruction. *"The most educative experiences are the wordless contact with things."*

Visualization is constantly in evidence. The pupil's hand-work is placed where his eye sees it. He reproduces his manual work with pencil and paper. *Efficiency*, not *information*, has become the educational ideal. The *brain* and the *hand* must work together in all life's problems, for to be efficient is to put *thought* and *feeling* into a form which reach the thought and feeling of others. Thus the Kindergarten-Primary pupil makes his Number experiences permanent by modelling, mounting, cutting and pasting.

Little children turn to construction unconsciously as they are motor in their activities. Thus the hand-work of the Kindergarten-Primary is used to develop Number in a *reasonable way*, thoroughly in accord with the age and mental growth of the child. The old-time Primary teacher may have to be on her guard. She may be impatient of results and disturb her plants before they are fully developed. Wishing to test a theory in Number work, I waited until I had developed all the addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and fractional parts of the numbers as high as *nine*. On February ninth, I gave the pupils a set of Number Cards involving all the operations. The result was beyond my anticipations. I felt like the woman in the parable of the Lost Coin. I wanted someone to *rejoice* with me. However, all sympathetic spirits were too far away; so I had to repress my own enthusiasm.

Some Kindergarten-Primary teacher may find the Reading and Language side most strenuous. Here again our hand-work becomes an aid. It gives the child a sense of power to create something, and this sense of power reacts upon his ability to speak and read fluently.

Early in the year the work must be kept simple. Let us suppose that the pupil has cut and mounted "an apple" or "a cat" or other familiar object. His card may contain a word or short sentence in script or print (preferably the latter), the difficulty corresponding to the ability and advancement of the pupil. The word or sentence will appear upon the B.B. also, thus emphasizing the visual. Gradually, by systematic, graded steps, he advances, until he illustrates a nature poem or short story. (Note.—The story may appear upon the B.B. in script.) The child illustrates the story, then mounts upon a card having the printed version. He then re-reads his story from the card, thus combining script and print from the *beginning*. Unknown words are easily grasped from the context, and retained when associated with the manual work. Such little verses as:—

"High up in the sky  
Shines the great sun."

"The moon has a face  
Like the clock in the hall."

"Little lamb, who made thee?"

"Twinkle, twinkle, little star."

"One little rabbit  
Under a tree,  
Called to the others,  
"Come and find me."

"Over in the meadow,  
In a hole in a tree,  
Lived a mother blue-bird  
And her little birdies three."

We use the Picture Sewing Cards in the same way.

The pupils sew a *house* upon a card which says, "Here is my home." They sew a *boat*. The card says:

"It rains on umbrellas here,  
And on the ships at sea."

You will see that sentences from the Primer and the First Reader may be used.

MacDougal says: "The world becomes real to us only as we are in active relation to it." So in these Manual Reading lessons, the written language becomes pleasantly familiar to the child.

Phonics? Oh, yes, we teach *phonics*. We teach *whole words*, *whole sentences*, *phonograms*, *stories*, *nursery rhymes*, *Nature poems*, and always a *Lullaby* once a week. These Kindergarten-Primary pupils are not very far past its soothing influence. We read *everything* because we *love to read*, even before we know the words.

I asked my little nephew how he knew where to place the blocks of the Third and Fourth Gifts. "Oh, I just read it off the box," he said. He takes reading as a matter of course. That is the natural way of learning to read. That is what we are striving after in the Kindergarten-Primary. We let the pupils visualize reading matter all the time. They have free access to piles of picture story books and supplementary primers. Printed matter should never be a foreign language to the Canadian child. Of course, as a Kindergarten-Primary, we have the apparatus of word-builders, sentence-builders, word-matching, picture-matching, child's spellers, etc.,



but these must be used wisely and not too soon. They can never take the place of the teacher and the B.B. They are used in periods of "Independent Expression" to test the work done before.

The Kindergarten-Primary teacher must see far ahead of each day's work; plan carefully; note the result of each lesson; record the result; retain what is useful and discard all useless methods and appliances at once, because the Kindergarten-Primary course is designed to give the *greatest good in the shortest time, with least waste of energy* to the developing child. He learns to read *better* and more fluently in *six months* than in a year of otherwise formal work.

Just as the Cutting lessons may be applied to Reading and Number, so the Construction lessons may also be utilized. The child folds the sixteen-square fold as a basis for many things. He can count the squares, find the half, quarter, eighth, or sixteenth part of the square surface. He may cut off one strip and make a "Take-away story," as  $16 - 4 = 12$ . He may cut off two strips and make another  $16 - 8 = 8$ . Or he may develop a *times* story:  $4 \times 4 = 16$ , or a division story:  $16 \div 4 = 4$ , or  $16 \div 8 = 2$ , or count by fours, as 4, 8, 12, 16, and afterwards string the beads by fours or place his pegs or seeds in fours, or fractional part:  $\frac{1}{2}$  of  $16 = 8$ ;  $\frac{1}{2}$  of  $8 = 4$ .

Correlated with the Gift work he gets the terms oblong, square, angle, triangle, which he can reproduce in folding paper and make permanent by mounting.

Correlated with his games, he plays "Pussy Wants a Corner," or "Pussy Wants an Angle."

It would be impossible to give more than a *tiny glimpse* of a year's work in the Kindergarten-Primary. I would rather a child should spend two years in the joyous work of the Kindergarten-Primary than in the Fourth Class.

Gessell says: "The great tragedy of the schools is the thwarting of the creative instinct of workmanship by a formal and suffocating environment. The problem of pedagogy is so to re-shape life that all the latent sprightliness, plasticity, geniality and creativeness of children will come to their fulness." The Kindergarten-Primary child loves to be busy and profitably employed. He loves to create and express himself in abounding life and joy. The play-spirit of the Kindergarten-Primary appeals to the child at this

stage of his mental development. The wise teacher can discern when he has passed the stage. The physical nature of the child is developed in the joyous free-play of the games, marches and rhythms. Dr. Stanley Hall called play "Motor poetry." Every child should be a poet, and every little life a poem, if it be not repressed and joyless.

Formal drill impedes development in the young child and makes stilted, nervous pupils. In free-play the muscles relax and new cells are created instead of wasting those already formed. The Kindergarten-Primary child is just running over with joyous, rhythmic play. As he loves motion, we can utilize this desire in all kinds of phonic, number and sense games.

Are we teaching the child to be disorderly? No, indeed! He is too happy all day long. We have a song we *love to sing*:

"FAIRY DISCIPLINE."

"Some dear little children went to Fairy Land  
To see the Fairies work and join the Fairy band.  
Said they to old King Fairy: "May we come and live with you?"  
He put his glasses on and said: "Well, now, what can you do?"

Can you work, can you play?  
Can you sing all day?  
Can you make folks happy?  
Can you make them gay?  
Can you jump, can you run?  
Can you make lots of fun?  
If you can, you may come,  
You may come, come, come!"

"The children then took hold of old King Fairy's hand,  
And went to all the poor and sick folk in the land.  
They went to the poor children who had to work all day,  
They helped them with their little tasks and taught them how  
to play.

How to work, how to play,  
How to sing all day,  
How to make folks happy,  
How to make them gay,  
How to jump, how to run,  
How to make lots of fun.  
Will you come? Will you come?  
Will you come, come come?

If pupils live in this ideal atmosphere, the question of discipline and exercise will resolve itself in their play. "For play is the guardian of the child's health and conduct."

Open wide the windows. Let in God's free air and sunshine. Have frequent joyous game periods, varied by marches, and you will accomplish more in fifteen minutes than in an hour of stilted seat occupation.

The morning exercises of the Kindergarten-Primary are a key to the day's work, and shed an atmosphere of perfect understanding between pupils and teacher, which is necessary in this *school-home*. They are varied: Nature Study, Ethics, Heroism, Patriotism, *the Story* and always the loving good-morning and personal greeting for each pupil.

Give of *yourself*. The pupils will respond:

"Forever the sun is pouring his gold

On a thousand fields that beg and borrow.

His warmth he squanders on summits cold,

His wealth on homes of want and sorrow.

To *withhold* his largess of precious light

Is to bury himself in *eternal night*.

*To give is to live.*

A great teacher is superior to her equipment, and projects herself and her spirit into her room. She knows how to establish a working attitude, and keep every child actively and profitably engaged.

The enthusiastic teacher does not mind self-sacrifice. She is willing to help where possible by adapting everything workable with least expense to the school.

There are at present *two* objections to a Kindergarten-Primary where there is no Kindergarten:

(1) The absolute misapprehension of the *scope* of the work covered.

(2) The *confusion* of the terms *Kindergarten* and *Kindergarten-Primary* on the part of parents. Thus they send immature children.

Five-year-old children are, *as a rule*, too young for the more strenuous parts of the course Reading and Language. Out of two thousand five-year-old children taken into the First Grade of the

Buffalo schools in 1915-16, fifteen hundred failed to make the grade in a year. This information was given by the Kindergarten-First Grade Magazine, with the remark: "It is interesting to have definite proof of a fact long known to Primary teachers of long experience."

Twenty-seven five-year-olds entered my Kindergarten-Primary in September. They have responded wonderfully, but I would not advocate a five-year-old standard. Normal six-year-old children learn to read in a few months.

The Education Department would aid the work very much by making a definite regulation regarding the age of Kindergarten-Primary pupils—also by making a *clearer* statement of the amount of Reading to be done in the Kindergarten-Primary.

Give me a Kindergarten-Primary room, bright with sunshine, artistically decorated with pictures and plants; having a sand-table, victrola; plenty of B.B. space for Reading and Language or Nursery Rhyme work, with Kindergarten-Primary equipment in workable quantities, and a class of joyous six-year-old pupils, and there is no place on earth where I would rather be every day.

"For, the eyes of a child are sweeter  
Than any hymn we have sung;  
And wiser than any sermon,  
Is the lisp of a childish tongue."

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*TO WHAT EXTENT CAN VOCATIONAL DIRECTION BE  
GIVEN TO BOYS AND GIRLS IN RURAL SCHOOLS?*

PRESIDENT G. C. CREELMAN, B.S.A., LL.D., COMMISSIONER OF  
AGRICULTURE FOR ONTARIO.

I once knew a lawyer, of a mechanical turn of mind, whose income was more than \$20,000 a year; when he was fifty years old, he solemnly declared that he was sorry he had not followed his natural bent, and become a carpenter. He argued that the brain work which led to brain fag was too strenuous; clients were so keen to make and keep money that lawsuits involving large financial interests were brain-racking affairs from the lawyer's standpoint. "If," said he, "I had been encouraged and given some direction when a boy, I believe that even with my delicate constitution I would have been robust and happy with saw and axe and chisel."

Many men who were raised on farms and afterwards removed to cities are constantly regretting that they ever left the country, and many of them would go back if they could carry with them the home comforts and conveniences to which they have become accustomed, and which they have learned to appreciate.

Further, I sincerely believe that it is not the glare of the white lights, or the cheap show, or the general excitement of the city that attracts the country boys and girls to the towns and cities of Ontario, but it is rather the narrow outlook and the lack of social life in the farming communities. Youth must be served, and all the parents and all educators must try always to keep that fact in mind.

Plowing and harrowing and hoeing and haying and harvesting may be all good healthy forms of exercise, but they are not the highest kind of entertainment year in and year out.

Should we, then, try to influence the boy and girl to stay on the farm? I think we should, if we can, instil in their young minds:—

- (1) A sound knowledge of the principles of right living.
- (2) A sound knowledge of the principles of right-farming for the boys, and right-housekeeping for the girls.

AGRICULTURE FOR THE BOYS.

We have in Ontario one of the very best farming countries in the world. A good climate, good soil, and plentiful rainfall insures

good crops. The year 1916 witnessed the poorest harvest Ontario has seen in fifty years, and yet, no one has starved; we have not had to ask our own or any other government to supply us with food. On the contrary, we have exported food products by the millions of dollars' worth.

We are also fortunate in having a population composed largely of English, Irish and Scotch ancestry. These people have intermarried until we have an intelligent, industrious and temperate people.

Then what is the matter?

The consensus of opinion of town and city people is that there is something wrong with country life.

Everybody is talking about it.

If farmers took it seriously, they would be on the "mourner's bench."

Farmers are not alarmed.

*What is the real problem, and what is it not?*

It is not—

- (1) Rural deterioration.
- (2) Rural degeneration.

We are—

- (1) Better housed.
- (2) Better clothed.
- (3) Better fed.
- (4) Better educated.
- (5) Better informed.
- (6) Farms are more productive.
- (7) Crops are produced more easily.
- (8) We have better implements and agencies.
- (9) Our women have less drudgery.

Truth compels us to recognize great advances in general conditions of country life.

- (3) *It is not rural depopulation.*

This is serious, but not the problem.

*It is not the country people who are filling up the cities.*

*City growth has four factors—*

- (1) Incorporation.
- (2) Natural increase.
- (3) Migration from the country.
- (4) Immigration.

*Incorporation is inconsequential.*

*Natural increase is about 20%.*

*Immigration 65% to 70%.*

*Rural migration only 10% to 15%.*

More farmers move to new localities and to new agricultural districts than to cities.

Again, we cannot hope to stop migration to cities, why?

Because the farmer produces more than the family needs—by better methods, he may double his productive capacity, in which case he can supply the needs of double the number, and some members of the family are crowded out.

*It is not a question of increasing production.*

This will not solve the rural problem, unless by making more money it means—

- (1) Higher standard of living.
- (2) Better education of the children.
- (3) Improvement in the methods of living.

Market co-operation and buying and selling are important, but we must remember—

- (1) There is nothing critical in our present methods.
- (2) We are not threatened by famine.
- (3) We are not nearing bankruptcy, and yet the problem has not solved itself.

Now then, the real positive problem, the real centre and essence of the rural problem, in my opinion, is the necessity of securing the establishment of a *new point of view*, a wider and more vital outlook on the part of the residents of the rural region.

We want new ideas practical enough to attract the enthusiastic.

We want a *new viewpoint*.

In the matter of living, a *new outlook of life itself*—

- (1) Its meaning.
- (2) Its possibilities of enjoyment.
- (3) Its possibilities of satisfaction.

The farmer's life too often is a round of eating, working, sleeping, saving and economizing; also putting up with inconveniences, especially in the house.

What makes unhappy retired farmers?

- (1) They have left their friends.
- (2) They still practise stern economies.

- (3) They still live in houses without conveniences.
- (4) They keep the old rag carpets.
- (5) They attend no theatres.
- (6) They have no specific duties.
- (7) They attend no lectures excepting free ones.

He goes about as a man without friends, or as one with a starved soul.

Transportation, therefore, does not help.

Farmers need to have developed the sentiment that the fullest and most successful life is the one that obtains the greatest and most successful "wants."

### THE SOCIAL OUTLOOK.

The farmer lives too much to himself. The social life has never been open to him.

He has never been taught that he was part of a human society, that politics and markets work under strict laws.

He has never had a teacher since childhood, and then probably studied under immature minds.

His universe is bounded by physical laws—sunshine, rain, frost, his own family, and one or two neighbors.

He and Nature count for what he obtains, and there have been no interlopers, excepting on rare occasions, such as when the doctor comes in.

Our farmers fail to recognize—

That they are a great social class, and they have a worth and dignity as such.

Agriculture has a wealth of enormous proportions, and more than one-half of the population.

*Its work is worthy.*

*Its position secure.*

*Its future promising,*

but having no organization, the farmers are victimized—

- (1) By politicians.
- (2) By trusts.
- (3) By railways.
- (4) By middlemen.

What we need is to develop a class consciousness which is self-respecting, powerful for organization purposes in relation to government and market, and which co-operates to secure greater regard for its rights and possibilities.



On the other side, *Social Life is dead*. What is wanted?

Answer:—

#### RURAL LEADERSHIP.

- (1) How did you get your Farmers' Institutes?
- (2) How did we get Women's Institutes?
- (3) How did we get District Representatives?
- (4) How did we get Experimental Unions?
- (5) How did we get Domestic Science Courses?
- (6) How did we get Agricultural Colleges and Experiment

Stations?

- (7) How did we get Agriculture in the Public School?

Certainly not by the initiative of the farmers themselves. Then leaders must be found, if talents are to be discovered and put to work. There is plenty of natural ability in the country, but no method of bringing it out. We must tackle the school—

- (1) The building.
- (2) The grounds.
- (3) The teacher.
- (4) Continuation classes.
- (5) Consolidation—one teacher cannot know everything.

This permits of real teaching to the older boys and girls—Literature, Science, Art, Economics, Agriculture, Domestic Science and Manual Training.

The ignorance of our young people to-day is lamentable.

#### PROFESSOR REYNOLD'S EXPERIMENT.

*Notes re examination of short course class, Macdonald Institute.*

Before any teaching was given to the class, and without notice, the following questions were written on the board and the class given plenty of time to write the answers:—

- (1) Name the authors of the following selections:

In Memoriam, Childe Harold, Paradise Lost, Ivanhoe, Sartor Resartus, To a Skylark ("Hail to thee, blythe spirit"), The Mill on the Floss, Evangeline, Recessional, Vanity Fair, David Copperfield, Sesame and Lilies, The Deserted Village, Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard, The Seats of the Mighty, The Sky Pilot, Lead Kindly Light.

- (2) What, where, and for what noted are the following:—

Sudbury, Prince Rupert, Esquimalt, Louvain, Gallipoli, Lemberg.

- (3) Name the Premiers of any six of the Provinces of Canada.

To question No. 1, I received answers all the way from nothing to 80%, with an average of 30% for a class of 21.

To question 2, the value of the answers varied from nothing to 72% with an average of 21%.

The class did fairly well on Canadian points, but were completely at sea with respect to the three European points. The nearest approach to a correct answer was "Louvain" was a place in France where a great battle had recently been fought, and Gallipoli was an island off the east coast of Scotland where the Germans had a submarine base.

(3) The answers to the third question were almost entirely a complete failure. Out of the 126 names that might have been mentioned by the candidates, only seven were correctly given. Six students named Mr. Hearst as Premier of Ontario, three of them spelling Hearst H-u-r-s-t, and one named Mr. Sifton as Premier of Alberta. One candidate stated that Sir James Whitney was Premier of Ontario, and another stated that Borden was Premier of Ontario, and Hughes, Premier of United States.

Our object in giving these questions was to find out, if possible, the mental alertness of the class in matters of general information, such information as could be gathered by reading the current papers, provided they were alert enough to want to know. I have no reason for supposing this class is in any way inferior in intelligence or attainments among the girls in Ontario. I find by looking over their applications, that they are all from Ontario, twelve from the farms in Ontario, two from cities, and seven living in towns and villages. Their educational status varies from High School Entrance to Junior Matriculation and Normal Entrance, including a Business Course for one, and for others various Ladies' Colleges."

#### PRACTICAL APPLICATION.

It seems to me that if we are to give vocational direction in rural schools, then we must introduce the three "R's" of rural life:—

- (1) Agriculture.
- (2) Mechanics (farm).
- (3) Household Science.

(1) Agriculture. Teachers should take courses at the Ontario Agricultural College, then use what they can in the schools.

2) They should take a course in Farm Mechanics, and set the boy to work making—

- (1) Cold frames.
- (2) Rope knotting and splicing.
- (3) Making split-log drags for mud roads.
- (4) Trap nests.
- (5) Bird houses.
- (6) Flower boxes.
- (7) Poultry houses, or anything else.

(3) The girls should be taught to sew and to cook. Sewing in school *and* as homework. Cooking in school, *or* as homework.

A lesson set on Friday for Saturday, housework in the home kitchen, and samples brought to school on Monday, has met with good results.

Yes, we must train the eye and the hand at the same time, and try our best to develop leadership wherever we find it. We must stop picking out all the bright scholars and turning their attention to the professions. We must encourage them to stay in the country, and to that end we must, as far as in us lies, give them the very best instruction we can in Literature, Agriculture, Farm Mechanics and Domestic Science, but, above all, we must teach them to respect their calling, always placing before them the possibilities of life in the country, as compared with the necessary bare conditions where brick and stone and cement play so large a part in the formation of cities.

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*ORAL COMPOSITION.*

J. A. HILL, PH.B., PRINCIPAL, FRANKLAND SCHOOL, TORONTO.

Experience and extended observation assure me that no subject of the school curriculum adheres more closely in its study to the two most important principles of Education than does the subject of Oral Composition, viz: That throughout youth, as in early childhood, and in maturity, the process should be one of self-instruction; and that the mental action induced by this process should be, throughout, intrinsically that of a pleasing character.

If progression from simple to complex, and from concrete to abstract, be considered the essential requirements in Education, as dictated by abstract psychology, then do these requirements that knowledge be self-mastered and pleurably mastered, become the fitting tests by which we may measure how fully the dictates of psychology are being complied with and fulfilled, in the study of Oral Composition.

Here the pupil is his own arbiter, under the wise guidance of the teacher, and searches with intense interest and delight, the home, the school, and the public library, for information pertaining to his subject of composition. And as he succeeds, from day to day, in adding to present knowledge, he gains confidence and receives fresh impulses that will fit him more fully for the duties of after-life; and in the meantime, he is becoming better prepared to attack the difficulties of his other studies with a courage that insures conquest.

Just in proportion as education is made a process of self-instruction, and by consequence a process of pleasurable instruction, so will the desire to gain knowledge continue when the pupil has passed beyond the threshold of the school-room. When the acquisition of knowledge has been rendered habitually gratifying, as we find it in Oral Composition, then will there be as prevailing a tendency to continue in the acquisition of knowledge without superintendence, as when under superintendence.

Any piece of knowledge that the pupil has himself acquired, any problem which he has himself solved, becomes by virtue of the conquest, much more thoroughly his than it could otherwise be. The preliminary activity of mind which his success implies, the concen-



tration of thought necessary to it, and the excitement consequent on his triumph, conspire to register all the facts in his memory, in a way that no mere information heard from a teacher, can be registered. And when, as in Oral Composition, the individual, personal research of the pupil has been characterized as one of pleasure, we may rest assured that the proper course is pursued and suitable methods adopted in this department of the pupil's education.

The study of Oral Composition develops courage in the pupil; "perseverance through failures"; patient concentration of the attention—the very characteristics that after-life requires. The individual, independent activity of the pupil, as herein necessarily exercised, is of much greater importance than the ordinary busy officiousness of many who assume the office of educators. The wisest charity of the teacher is to help the pupil to help himself. The child that has been bolstered up and levered throughout his schooldays is seldom good for much in a crisis in after-life, but looks around for something to cling to, or lean upon. If the prop is not there, down he goes. Through the study of Oral Composition, the pupil is trained to self-reliance; and through its necessary independent research, he masters knowledge that will fortify him for the emergencies of life.

Many a man has been handicapped through life by being unable to express himself intelligently, and intelligibly, through the want of the help, the practice of this study would have given: and he has been compelled to struggle on, devoid of one of the fundamental requirements of a liberal education—the ability to express himself clearly and concisely.

This phase of education has not been given the attention that it merits; and the consequence is that men and women graduates of our collegiates, normal schools and even universities are unable to respond to a toast, and become almost paralyzed when asked to express their opinions on any public question of the day. This deplorable want is recognized more fully to-day than ever before, and the alleviation of the heavy handicap, imposed thereby, is the desideratum of the study of Oral Composition. That which trains a person to speak well, to think clearly and readily, to rely solely on self, to face an audience without fear and trembling, and to command its attention and merit its applause, surely is a source of power

that cannot fail in the many emergencies of life, if practised in youth. A subject that can be correlated advantageously with Nature Study, History, Literature, and Geography, that has a corresponding reciprocal effect for good on the other members of the class, and furnishes increased facility in the training of the memory to greater efficiency, is well worthy of the continuous efforts and the abiding sympathy of the teacher.

Now, just a word or two as to method: Find the boy's hobby and encourage him to talk about it. Let the pupils choose their own subjects, only suggesting to *assist* them.

At first, let the talks be very short, gradually lengthening them as the child gains confidence.

Encourage series of talks, at first probably only a sentence or two, next time reviewing and adding to it. Commend every effort. Make the criticisms in writing for the pupil. Tell the class what is especially good, but point out the mistakes to the pupil only.

When an announcement is to be made to the class, if possible, let a pupil do it. It helps him to gain confidence.

Encourage pupils to help one another and to be careful to give sympathetic attention when one of their number is speaking.

Give required suggestions as to the varied sources of information pertaining to the subject chosen by the pupil.

When opportunity occurs, when a parent, a minister, a trustee, or a friend is visiting your room, ask for a volunteer to entertain the visitor. You will, forthwith, have a dozen or more, anxious to be assigned the honored and coveted desk.

Thus may a good work be carried on which will finally crown your guidance and help, with unbounded success, in developing, in the pupil, a power that will be ready to aid him in the hour of need.

*CADET WORK IN OUR SCHOOLS.*

MR. W. F. MOORE, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL, DUNDAS.

*Mr. President and Fellow-Teachers*,—I am pleased to have been asked to speak to you to-day on Cadet Work in Our Schools. I know that we are not all of the same opinion in regard to the merits of military drill and discipline. For years, there have been strong mutterings of discontent over the militarism of Prussia, and long before the present war broke out those expressions of discontent reached Canada, and many persons were impressed with the arguments against anything of a military nature. Let us give the question some investigation. In Prussia, the purpose of the army was to dominate—the state, the government, the schools, the church—with the one idea, that the army was the only thing of real importance in the country and to the nation. Girls and women were taught that the great purpose of their lives was to be the mothers of soldiers. Every young man was supposed to spend so many years in a military training school; the only ones exempt from this training were the physical and mental defectives. There were strong objections to the scheme, and those objections were given voice by public lecturers. The newspapers of Canada, and ministers, protested strongly against the military spirit being introduced into our schools and colleges. These criticisms and objections were perfectly justifiable in Germany, where the principle of military drill was carried to a dangerous degree. Let us examine why, in Canada, the same objections do not and should not exist. The drill is here used for a very different purpose. Here a young man is a student, and a cadet afterwards; there he is a cadet or soldier and a student in the time he can spare from his military duties. Teachers and military authorities in Canada look upon drill only as a means to an end. What is the purpose and aim of drill in our schools?

1. The drill gives a promptness of obedience and action that can be secured in no other way. When the well-known whistle is blown, the boys fall in quickly, quietly and orderly. The lesson commences, and there is a healthy desire created to be sharp and prompt in performance. The whole corps becomes possessed of it, for one or more making mistakes will throw confusion into the

whole movement, which is strongly resented by those who have not made the mistakes.

2. The boys learn to be respectful. I am sure that many of you will agree that proper respect is something in which the Canadian and indeed the American youth is sadly lacking. What can be nicer than to see the manly way a cadet will salute the masters of the school, as they meet each other on the street? And this salute to the masters is quite frequently extended to the ministers and Sunday School teachers and to others.

3. It gives a boy a good carriage. Watch a number of young cadets walking down the streets of your city. I think I could go out on the playgrounds here in front of the University and pick out the lads who are under good military training.

4. It builds a boy up. The drill for cadets is not all military; it should be largely physical. Even the drill for our soldiers is largely physical. It straightens the back, rounds out the chest, the feet are picked up, not trailed; the eyes are to the front, not on the ground; the body does not sway from side to side, neither does it jerk forward and back in a turkey movement.

It is worth while to stand on a public platform at the close of an entertainment, when the National Anthem is being sung, to see the little chaps, scattered here and there—and oh, how easily you may pick them out—to see them coming to attention. No putting on of overcoats, or fumbling for a cigarette; but the little chaps set an example that might well be followed by all present.

What think you, ladies and gentlemen, caused recruiting to meet with such glorious results in such centres as Toronto, Hamilton, Ottawa? I ascribe it to the spirit created by the Cadet Corps. I am sure that I am right in this opinion. I have personal reason to know it. On the blood-stained fields of Belgium and France, many of the brave boys to whom I taught the rudiments of drill and more than the rudiments of rifle shooting, have laid down their young lives in defence of their King and country. They would not be denied.

This spirit is growing; let us fall into line. Over 120 School Boards in the Province have petitioned the Minister of Education to introduce drill into our schools. On Saturday, March 10th, Sir Wm. Hearst and his Cabinet received a deputation on the matter. The personnel of the deputation was as varied as it was distin-



guished—religious, philanthropic, patriotic, educational, literary, political, financial and industrial. Colonel Merritt was the chief speaker. He quoted from Commodore Jarvis, saying that the improvement in the bearing and physique of 160 boys who had had less than three months' training was simply wonderful. Here are a few of the good things then said by the various speakers:

Col. Merritt: "No Canadian was too young or too unimportant to begin to learn how sacred was the duty of maintaining a well-trained physique, that could, in every particular, answer readily the promptings of an alert intelligence." Mrs. Gooderham, I.O.D.E.: "Ontario had the opportunity of honoring herself by taking the lead and showing the way for the rest of the Dominion." Sir Edmund Walker: "After this war we want to fill Canada with people who will be able to boast that they had a share in this war. We cannot do any greater service to the country than to cause our boys to wear the uniform for a time, learn politeness and discipline." Bishop Sweeney: "The development of physique and upright bearing, the subjection to command, and the demand for instant obedience, the mental training that makes for precision, punctuality and self-respect, all are clearly involved in the word—Drill." Canon McNab: "The co-operative activity of Drill, making, as it does, a call upon both body and mind at the same time, inspires, as nothing else will, a true ideal of the social organism, where body, mind and heart work together for the well-being of the individual and, through him, of the whole nation." Sam Landers, labor leader: "The rank and file of labor men are in favor of it."

Sir Wm. Hearst, in replying, said the matter they had presented should receive the best attention of the Government. The youth of the country should be trained, not only to cherish high ideals, but also to be physically fitted to back up these ideas, if challenged. At present I am not in favor of compulsory military drill in our schools. For this reason: Probably not one-fifth of the teachers are qualified to undertake it. Military drill is an education in itself, and time and skill are required to secure it. Neither do I think it ever would be well to make it compulsory. I think that military drill is applicable only to urban centres, where enough boys can be secured to make a Cadet Corps. It may be logically argued that if military drill is what I and others have said of it, that it should be good for the girls as well as for the boys. The sex problem here must be

considered, also the object and aim of the drill. With the boys we look to the future, when the boys may, as now, be called upon to serve their country. Then a knowledge of drill and rifle shooting is a great preparation. What, then, shall we do for the girls? Give them the Stratheona Physical Drill, which, indeed, is the great body-builder. All of the teachers take a certain amount of this drill at the Normal Schools, and all are, or should be, qualified to teach it. The Stratheona exercises have a financial side to them, for if your county, town or city is organized, and a report sent in, a good cheque will be sent back to your county, not by the Ontario Government, but by the Stratheona Trust, of which Dr. J. L. Hughes is the Secretary. If you wish to organize, do so through your county or other conventions, and all the information will be forwarded by him to you on application.

To form a Cadet Corps at your schools, application for permission to do so should be sent to the Minister of Education for transmission to the Minister of Militia and Defence. The trustees of the school will be required to give an undertaking that they will be responsible for rifles and equipment supplied to the cadets.

A belt and Stetson hat will be supplied to each cadet.

Ross Cadet rifles will be supplied; 50 rounds of .22 ammunition will be annually supplied.

Easdale targets in sufficient quantity.

The Dominion Government will pay to the instructor \$1 per cadet on inspection, or others satisfactorily accounted for.

Fifty dollars will be paid to the school for a Cadet Corps which passess a successful inspection.

The Dominion Act for regulation of minimum size of Cadet Corps differs materially from the Provincial Act. Dominion Act is by far the better. It is: Not fewer than 20 boys, who shall be at least 12 years of age, and not more than 18.

The Provincial Act says that the ages shall be 14 to 18. It is difficult to get 20 boys in a public school who are over 14 years of age; they are generally in the High School by that time. I have taken up the matter with Dr. Colquhoun to have the Provincial Act made the same as the Dominion Act. It would be very much in favor of the town and large village schools. Cities can always manage it. They frequently have their Fifth classes.

I wrote Dr. Colquhoun a short time ago, and asked him if it was intended to have summer schools to train instructors. He replied that the matter was being considered, and was quite probable.

How much time should be spent on drill? I think that once a week, commencing, say at 3.00, and continuing to 4.30. Commence it in school hours, so that no boy shall be able to make the excuse that he has to get away to do errands or deliver papers.

If possible, have the rifle shooting out-of-doors. This might not be possible in cities, but in towns and villages it always is.

The present drill book, as used for the training of our soldiers, is unsuitable for Cadets. A Cadet Drill Book should be prepared by some competent instructor. The amount of drill contained should be not more than what could be fairly well mastered in 12 or 15 lessons. Again, I am thinking of town and village schools, which the pupils generally leave before they are 14 years of age.

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*THE MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF RECRUITS—SPECIAL  
POINTS OF INTEREST TO TEACHERS AND PARENTS.*

JAS. W. BARTON, M.D., PHYSICAL DIRECTOR, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

In presenting this paper, I wish to state emphatically that it is not in a spirit of criticism, but that these mistakes or omissions of the past may be rectified. This war has taught us many things, in our own homes, in our own hearts, and so, naturally, also in our public capacities.

The examination of the recruit was perhaps hurried for the first contingent, and many friends of the local commander, or the physician, were sent forward, without proper examination, from the smaller centres. In Toronto, also, we likely made mistakes; but our percentage of rejects of enlisted men has been lower than that of any other centre in Canada.

Although I have been examining men for over twenty years, and with more attention to detail than that required for the examination of the recruit, nevertheless, the lessons that came home to me during the latter examination were nothing short of astounding.

The examination proper of the recruit was, to my mind, businesslike.

First, before removing the clothing, the nose and throat were examined. Many candidates went no further. The number with diseased tonsils, pyorrhœa, adenoids and chronic nasal catarrh was astonishing. After removing the clothing, the height and weight were taken, and then the candidate came before the examiner again.

The eyes were then tested, and the hearing. The chest was measured—normal, then deflated and inflated. Then the lungs and heart were examined, then test made for hernia or rupture, then the spine, legs and feet, the movement of arms and legs.

Now, what were the lessons we learned?

First, as we looked into the mouth and saw diseased tonsils and decaying teeth, it was not hard to realize why rheumatism and indigestion are so prevalent. Tonsils that give evidence of annual attacks, as regular as winter itself. Why will parents allow their children to go year after year with their tonsils untreated? Why



will teachers allow the same condition to persist during the child's attendance in their rooms? These glands are simply poison centres which send into the system, daily, a tremendous amount of septic matter. Nature does her best and accommodates herself by fighting the condition as much as possible; but the dose is often too large for her to combat, and disease and distress ensue. And adenoids, which should not persist after early infancy, were found in many adults. With the breathing apparatus hindered by adenoids and tonsils, the small or immature chest was very frequently the natural sequence.

A teacher or parent that can see a child with a typical adenoid expression, and showing lack of concentration, and takes no steps to correct the same, is falling far short of his or her duty, not only in so far as the child's health is concerned, but also from the ordinary school standpoint; because that child, from repeated colds, lack of concentration, and insufficient lung capacity, will gradually drop back in the class standing.

The matter of the teeth loomed very large, and rightly so. That oft-told story of the man who, having been turned down on account of bad teeth, stated that he wanted to fight the Germans and not eat them, amused a great many people. But what is the truth of the matter? Thousands of men were turned down because of bad teeth in the first contingent. I myself would send a sergeant down the line of men waiting to be examined, and at least seven in twenty never came before me because the condition and number of the teeth were not up to requirements. And what were these terrible requirements? Simply, that on at least one side of his mouth a man must have two teeth—one upper and one lower—opposed to one another. Why? Because some "chew" ability was essential in active service. Indigestion in various forms was quite evident in the majority of these cases, although I must admit that many fine specimens of manhood were turned down. A man, on active service, without teeth with which to chew his food—the ordinary rations—is not a safe risk for the Government. And why did such a condition exist? Because teeth, in past decades, had been extracted, rather than treated and preserved. It seemed the proper thing, especially to Old Country parents, to have their children's teeth extracted when they began to decay. It was nothing short of criminal, in so far as

the child was concerned; and, as I said before, thousands of men were turned down at the beginning of the war.

If any plea were needed for dental inspection in schools, the above would be all-sufficient.

And the eyes. Thousands were turned back on account of poor eyesight, as almost 50 per cent. of rejects were from defective vision. And the remarkable part of the matter was that many of the men and boys thought their eyes were all right until the test was made. They admitted having frequent headaches, but never even thought that these might possibly be caused by eyestrain.

It is not hard for a parent or teacher to recognize short-sightedness or astigmatism. And these conditions can be helped, early, and easily. Hundreds of our boys and men would have passed the test had simple measures been taken by parents and teachers. Proper fitting glasses for varying periods would have brought up many to the required standard.

The number of cases of spinal curvature was fairly large. Most of the cases that caused rejection were known to have been observed, in the recruit, when he was a boy at school, but nothing was done.

I'm very glad to see so much overhead apparatus in the playgrounds, as this form of exercise is a great factor in preventing spinal curvature.

Any teacher or parent should be able to recognize spinal curvature, and simple exercises of hanging by the hands, on a bar or rings, will correct the trouble, when the patient is young.

Then as to the chest. I believe this one matter of small chest aroused more resentment within me, than perhaps any other one thing. To think that any Canadian man, or grown boy, could not measure up to the low requirement of chest measurement. The boy was usually one whose parents would not allow him out to play, when he was young, and absolutely forbade athletics when he grew older. His chest was the same as regards ratio of width to depth as when he was a baby. The chest of a baby is about as wide as it is deep. As the child grows and develops, the width gradually becomes larger than the depth, until, at the adult stage, the proportion is as 10 to 7.

What did we find? Most of the men and boys with small chests did not have this ratio, but more like 10 to 8 or 10 to 8.5. In other

words, their chests were immature or undeveloped, more like the "baby" chest. We were unable to take the recruit with the small chest, unless he was about eighteen years of age, when the belief that the training would develop him, permitted him to pass.

The parent who does not want his boy to climb a tree or a fence, to play baseball or football, is making a terrible mistake in so far as the boy's physique is concerned. In examining these chaps, I would say: "I suppose you never went in for athletics?" And the answer was invariably: "No." "Why?" "Oh, the folks wouldn't let me. They were afraid I'd get hurt." That parent, who is responsible, has denied his boy the opportunity of acquiring the physique of a man—a man fit to do his bit in the defence of his country. And after all, the defence of his country should make the heart of every boy and man a mainspring of courage.

At this time, when our country has been at war for three years, it seems a long way back to peace times and military conferences, in those times. And members of the Educational Association, I wish to state here that I was at two conferences at Ottawa, and what was the keynote of both conferences? Preparation for war? Training for the invasion of an enemy country? No! Not one word, in all the speeches, voiced such a sentiment. But the keynote was always, and ever, "To train the boy so that he will be fit, and ready, to defend his country." What if a boy or a man be loyal, if he has neither the physique nor the training with which to defend his country—"his own, his native land"?

That is not all. A man's courage is not measured by the size of his chest or the muscles of his arms, but these very athletic sports that would have made that parent's boy fit to defend his country are the very things needed to beget courage. So, perhaps, the least valuable thing—that is, his chest development—is, notwithstanding, keeping from him the opportunity of defending his country. The boy learns to take his "knocks." He will stand up for himself. He will be less of a coward.

Now, many a boy who has not gone into athletics is as brave as the athletic boy; but he is the exception. Why? Because the athletic boy has matched his muscle, skill, and nerve against other boys, and has learned to know that it is what is expected of him. In other words, it is a part of his training. I believe that we are 50

per cent. of what we inherit and 50 per cent. of what we acquire. And further, the boy who goes into athletics and pastimes acquires not only the necessary chest—(and of the thousands I have examined for overseas service I have yet to get an athlete with a chest too small)—but he acquires this courage-training that is worth more to him, as a man, than perhaps any other one thing.

It is as natural for boys to climb and play as it is for them to eat. Most parents realize this, as they have vision enough to understand that if their boy is to take his place in the world, meet its difficulties, fight for his rights, and support his family, he must be enured to hardship and danger.

I have so often seen the boy at preparatory school too timid to box or play football. In fact the boy would be "backed up" by his parents, in the matter, as they did not wish him to get hurt. However, the masters encourage, even the youngest, to box and play football. And what is the result? The timid boy learns how it feels to get his nose bloody, his head bumped, or his shin barked. There is nothing, perhaps, that helps the boy in sticktoitiveness like the athletic games. He learns to take his knocks and his defeats, because they come to every boy. And the unselfishness begotten in these games is a training in itself. The self-control, also, is worth a broken nose, arm or leg, in the training of the boy to be a real man. And, last, but not least, the integrity of a man is developed, very often, in the athletic field. We have it from the president of a large bonding company that boys and young men, who went into athletics, were better risks, and were more able to resist temptation, than those who did not.

You will pardon my plea for athletics, to which I have devoted my life thus far. But when I saw hundreds of boys and young men rejected because of small chests, not one of whom had gone in for athletics, I felt that I was not as guilty as I might have been in so far as boys and young men not being fit for service was concerned.

One point more. You and I may yet see athletics on the college curriculum as a subject in mental training. An intricate offensive play in football or baseball which is met by an equally intricate defensive play, calls for quickness and accuracy of thought and action equal to those of the problems in other branches of study. I make this plea, here, for athletics and sports, because they mean so much to the boy and the man. And the teacher or parent who



does not encourage them deprives a boy not only of the greatest factor in begetting courage and self-reliance, but may be depriving him also of his chance to join a militia unit to defend his country, owing to his poor physique.

Then, as we think further about the chest, there is the boy who has had pneumonia or pleurisy. Sometimes "patches," as we call them, remain, and so impede respiration that the boy is not able to show the required expansion. How does the parent and the teacher figure in this proposition? The parent should be able to recognize that his boy's chest is not developing, that there is retardation. After a pleurisy or pneumonia, it is the duty of a parent to encourage the boy to play outdoors, as much as possible, as nothing but exercise will strengthen the lungs or break up the pockets or adhesions. A Varsity boy came to me, less than two weeks ago, to see if he was fit for overseas service. He weighed 140 pounds, stripped well; eyes, heart, feet and so forth were all right. When I went over his lungs I found an uneven expansion. I measured both sides and found scarcely any expansion on the right side. I asked him his history and found that the previous year he had contracted pleuro-pneumonia. He had been strapped tightly and had been absolutely quiet, as far as exercise was concerned, for a year. I advised him to work on a farm all summer, and have another examination in the Fall. I am of the opinion that if the boy had been given exercises to make him breathe more deeply, such as slow jogging, he would have broken up those pockets, and would have been fit for active service.

Then the examination of the heart. The ordinary valvular disease, I must admit, is hard to prevent. If, in every infection—rheumatism, measles, scarlet fever, etc.—the boy were kept absolutely in bed during the active infective process, some might be prevented. At least, many dilatations and murmurs would be prevented. But the heart with poor pressure, slight irregularity and slight rapidity, which were the causes of very many rejections, could have been rendered fit for service, in my opinion, by simple exercises, the regular class-work in any gymnasium. This idea, that because a boy's heart beats irregularly, rapidly, or the pressure is poor, that therefore all exercise should be avoided, is one of the big mistakes of modern civilization. I feel very strongly on this, as many of the so-called murmurs and irregularities which caused many rejections

among recruits, cleared up by the simple experiment of having the candidate run around the room once, or taking some other form of exercise. I have no hesitation in saying that we saved at least half a battalion, at the Toronto Recruiting Depot, by this simple experiment. Why? Well, we felt that the more regular exercise that a boy or a man took, the better it would be for his heart.

A little digression here. Many a candidate came in saying that he knew he had "heart disease" because his heart beat so rapidly, and that he got out of breath so easily. And why? Because he had bad teeth, which allowed food to pass into the stomach too soon. Gas formed, pressed against the diaphragm, and thus against the heart, interfering with its action. A dental plate, or the filling of some teeth, has been the means of removing this form of "heart disease."

Two young men, chums from the same tent, were admitted to our hospital, about one month ago, with influenza. They both left the hospital the same day. One walked out; the other was taken out in a casket. Why? Simply because the latter had a heart that gave out; its muscular power was below par—no valvular disease—just weak muscle. Those simple signs, cold hands and feet, cold hanging on for weeks, call for the attention of the parent and the teacher. The boy may have any of those diseases that call for resisting power in the body—pneumonia, typhoid fever, appendicitis—and a strong heart may pull him through. What will strengthen that heart? Exercise, again, and nothing but exercise. The parent or the teacher who denies play to a boy, or even who does not encourage play, is not fair to the boy, nor to the country.

And then varicose veins. What are varicose veins? Simply a permanent dilatation of a vein. At least a battalion of men, in Toronto alone, have been lost to the service by this condition. And the cause of it has been, so frequently, the tight, round garters that boys wear just above the knees. This is the initial cause which predisposes. Standing too long, heredity, and violent exercise, or work, may be the immediate cause. Parents should see to it that if round garters are worn, they are not too tight.

And then the feet. Thousands of our men and boys have been turned down on account of their feet—most of them on account of "flat" feet. What is the cause of it, and can it be prevented? The cause of it is, usually, standing for hours, which keeps the muscles

and ligaments on the stretch. Can it be recognized early? Yes. Can it be cured? Yes. And yet thousands of our men were lost to us in overseas service from this one defect.

How can it be recognized, early? Simply by the tired feeling so frequently noted—a tiredness and ache across the arch, with pain up into the calf of the leg.

I have often detected the real flat foot by examining the boots of the recruit, as he usually wears down the inner side of the sole and the heel.

Many people look upon the condition as hopeless. Treatment in flat foot is to have proper-fitting shoes. Do not wear ordinary running shoes, or slippers, when standing or walking. Strapping up the feet and getting properly fitted plates will correct a large percentage of cases; and then, simple exercises will strengthen the muscles.

The cases of hammer-toes were very numerous and caused many rejections. What is a hammer-toe? A toe in which the joint has lost its power of movement and has a claw-like appearance. It usually interferes with marching. It is almost invariably caused by tight boots. The lesson is self-evident. The pictures we see in the papers, showing the results of tight boots, do not exaggerate in the least. Tight boots, with pointed toes, are responsible for the loss to Canada of over a battalion of men. Just think of it!

I believe the one great lesson, then, that we, as parents and teachers, have learned, is the old lesson, that the body is the foundation on which we must build. With a strong body, the child can go onward and upward, where'er his ambition leads him. With a weak body, he can only travel as far as his bodily strength will carry him. I like to think of our late Minister of Militia. A man of good brain-power, wonderful will-power, and a body that carried him through a volume of work, in the two years of war, the equal of which has never been seen in this country of ours. We may not see eye to eye with him in many ways, but Canada owes much to his great physical strength, developed on the lacrosse and the athletic field.

I trust that hereafter these bodies of ours, the bodies of our children and pupils, will receive from us the attention they deserve.

And God knows that with the cream—yes, the rich cream—of our manhood gone overseas, it behooves us to conserve that which is left, that the boys of the future may be real men, in the fullest sense of the word.

*WILL THERE BE A NEW CANADA?*

ARCHDEACON CODY, D.D., LL.D., RECTOR OF ST. PAUL'S CHURCH,  
TORONTO.

A literature of reconstruction is being created. There are proposals to reconstruct almost everything under the sun—religion, politics, industry, commerce, education. After the war, it is said, all things will be rebuilt. Let me, therefore, preface my remarks by saying that unless Germany is decisively defeated and through defeat experiences a change of heart, there will be no opportunity of reconstructing anything for the better. All our dreams and hopes of a better world are based on the shattering of our enemy's aims and ambitions. Our immediate duty, therefore, absolutely primary and essential, is to win the war. To this end there must be concentration of energy and consecration of purpose, possessions and persons.

Yet it is legitimate to plan and prepare even now for the future. It is part of the duty of those who are too old, or are unfit, to go to the Front, to learn the lessons of the times, and to apply their learning to planning for the betterment of their country, a country doubly dear through the blood that has been shed in its defence. We may, then, as teachers and thinkers, consider to-day the possibility and probability of the Canada of the future becoming a purer, better and nobler Canada.

Not long ago, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, speaking at Carnarvon, used these words:—

“When the smoke of this great conflict has been dissolved, there will appear a new Britain. It will be the old country still, but it will be a new country. Its commerce will be new, its trade will be new, its industries will be new. There will be new conditions of life and of toil, for capital and for labor alike, and there will be new relations between both of them, and forever. There will be new ideas; there will be a new outlook; there will be a new character in the land. The men and the women of this country will be burnt into fine building material for the new Britain in the fiery kilns of the war. It will not merely be the men who, please God, will come back



from the battlefield to enjoy the victory which they have won by their bravery—a finer foundation I would not want for the new country; but the Britain that is to be will depend also upon what will be done now by the many more who remain at home. There are rare epochs in the history of the world when in a few raging years the character, the destiny of the whole race is determined for unknown ages. This is one."

These striking words are in large measure applicable to the Canada that is to be. There may be, we trust there will be, a new Canada. The material basis of our national life will be the same; but we look for a new spirit in the lives of our people, supplied through the men who have returned from the cleansing fires of the battlefield, and through those men and women at home who have perceived the meaning of these great days and have gained a vision of the better time that may be ours. Only by a new spirit can there be a new and better Canada.

We sometimes say that the war will alter everything. That is true for all of us in some respects, and for some of us in all respects. But there is a deep sense in which it is true to say that nothing vital will be altered. Human nature, in its tragedy and its glory, will be the same. The moral law will be the same. The fundamental problems of life, which at bottom are moral problems, will be the same.

The better new Canada, the differences for the better everywhere, will not come as a mere matter of course. They must be prayed for, toiled for, planned for, fought for. One writer, with hyperbolic antithesis, has described our possible future as being either Hell or Utopia. Either there will be the same old world on the same old levels, indeed a worse old world on lower levels, marked by such moral reaction and exhaustion as may well be termed "Hell;" or else there will be such an advance to a higher and more ideal world that it may seem to be the realization of the best men's "Utopia." If the new is to be the better, this future must be struggled for. With what spirit are we facing the future? What are the ideals of our people? Do we seem to be learning from this awful preceptor of war such lessons as will better fit us to solve the old problems that survive and the new problems that arise from the world situation created by the great cataclysm?

As teachers, we realize afresh the importance of our calling. In

our hands is placed the powerful weapon of education. What lessons can we give to the plastic youth of this generation? We have seen in Germany an awful illustration of the power of education over the minds and bodies of men. We have observed that it can poison the springs of national life; it can alter and lower national ideals; it can create an utterly false conception of the nature of the state and of its relation to other states; it can minister to a colossal national vanity and egotism. Applied with persistence and pedantic pertinacity, education can prove the most formidable engine in the modern world for controlling conduct and swaying purpose. We know now that it does matter what a man believes; indeed, it is the thing that matters most. What a man really believes, makes him and sways his whole career. Our schools have, in view of these considerations, a great opportunity and a great responsibility to teach a sane, a saving, a sacrificial patriotism, and to set forth the terms on which alone a better country can be won.

Sound education is of special value in relation to the present generation of school children, both because they will have added obligations to fulfil by reason of the death of so many of their immediate seniors, and because they will grow up in an altered world. It has been aptly said that whatever we wish to see introduced into the life of a nation must first be introduced through its schools and universities. The new Canada will find many of its creators among the children under your care to-day. Perhaps the children themselves recognize that they are living in a great age, and that they must play a great and noble part in the drama of their country's future history. An inspector of primary schools in old London not long ago examined over 1,300 papers written by boys and girls of 11 years of age on the topic, "How we can help in the war." The gist of the best answers was expressed in this sentence from one of the papers: "We children will have to put this country right after the war; so we must work hard and become well educated." The children of to-day will be the nation builders of to-morrow. The school is the most regular and authoritative channel through which they will receive information, inspiration and direction. You teachers must, therefore, think clearly and study strenuously and live nobly that you may be effective moulders of the new citizens of this Dominion.

Before we can plan for the new Canada, we must have a true

conception of the old Canada which we have inherited. It is a far-stretching land, of vast natural resources, demanding man's toil on every hand. Its people have a worthy national tradition; they possess many virile virtues; they are characterized by stability, resourcefulness and unconventionality. Its democratic constitution has been won by hard struggles in the past. Its inhabitants are separated by distance, race, religion and language; yet the deepest impress on the country as a whole has been made by those of British stock. It has more or less clearly realized its membership in a world-wide political entity—the British Empire; and this has counteracted an inevitable tendency to provincialism. All these factors have constituted a great opportunity. Here in Canada there is full scope for our love of justice, fair play, free speech and democratic advance. Here is a great “land of the second chance.”

If our power to reconstruct a better Canada rests in large part upon the extent to which we have learned the lessons taught by the great upheaval, we shall do well to think these through again. We may enumerate some of them.

1. The war has revealed the extraordinariness of the ordinary man. There is a latent hero in every man. These testing days have shown the bigness of the average man, and alas, too often, the littleness of the officially big man.

2. The war has restored to us a right sense of proportion. We know that physical life and comfort are of infinitely less value than honor, service and patriotism. The supreme things in life are not material things, but the immaterial and spiritual realities of sacrifice for a great cause. In the light of eternal values, we are constrained to ask, not “What can I get out of this by way of selfish gain?” but “What can I give or do for the world's welfare?”

3. The war has given us a fresh realization of the supremacy of persons over things. In the prosperous years of the past, “things were in the saddle and ruled mankind.” To-day, in spite of the machinery so largely used in the struggle, men have entered on a new freedom, because their spirits have been redeemed from the tyranny of things. The great essential of life is that the spirit be quickened, so that we become more abundantly and intensely alive. Ruskin well said: “There is no wealth but life—life with all its powers of love, of joy, of admiration. That country is the richest which nourishes the greatest number of noble and happy

human beings." Fifty years ago the German scientist, Liebig, remarked that "civilization is economy of power, and England's power is coal." "Civilization," retorted Ruskin, "is the making of civil persons."

4. The war has helped the revolt against the tyranny of abstractions, a tyranny whose home is pre-eminently in the land of political tyranny, Germany. In no country is psychology more studied, and in no country is human nature less understood. We sorely needed deliverance from this sway of abstraction and theory. We have largely been set free by the war. Our abstractions are being translated into personalities. We no longer speak of the "British Army" or "The Canadian Militia;" we speak of "our men at the Front." This is a concrete illustration of the change that has come. Right and wrong have no proper moral meaning except when they describe the relations between persons.

5. We have clarified our conception of the State. We believe that its essence is not power, but justice, mercy and mutual service. The State is not something out of which we are to squeeze as much as possible for ourselves or our friends by the use of our votes, but the State stands for certain ideals which we shall maintain, even at the risk of life itself.

6. The war has brought into a clear exposure the opposing principles and vital issues at stake. The material and the spiritual philosophies of life are at death grips. Moral alternations are made more intelligible by being clothed with personality. A civilization based on materialism and egotism will ultimately bring about its own destruction. Nothing less than the present cataclysm could have opened our eyes to see whither we were drifting, and what is the inevitable goal of pursuing material interests without the least regard for the rights and feelings of others.

7. We have learned the essential oneness of all classes of our people. Common sorrows, common anxieties, common achievements, common work together, have created a new spirit of sympathy and brotherhood at home and overseas. Mutual understanding brings mutual respect.

8. We have seen, especially in the Motherland, what speedy and wonderful achievement, can be effected by the action of the State, when all parties work together for the common good. All



private interests must be subordinated to the public safety and welfare. To secure this result there has been an unparalleled extension of the functions of the State.

9. We have had a revelation of the possibilities of power through the more effective organization of existing resources and the combination of State and private enterprise.

10. We have painfully learned the fundamental character of the food supply. We have been faced with the primeval fact that the food question is at the bottom of every other question, big or little, and that society rests on the best use of our land. The plough is our hope. Agriculture is the basal industry.

11. We Canadians have been compelled to have a world outlook, and to share in a world enterprise, and a world policy.

12. Our men have been brought into a fighting alliance with the other parts of the Empire. We realize, as never before, our unity and our responsibilities as sharers in Imperial citizenship.

13. We are getting a sight of a world league of free peoples. Against the enemy of civilization is now arrayed a great brotherhood of democracies, fighting for common and lofty ideals. Herein is the possibility of a future federation of mankind to keep the peace and uphold the humane civilization of the world.

Out of this struggle in due time the world will emerge, poorer and sadder, but it is to be hoped, wiser. The one hope that counterbalances the loss of life and treasure and all the agonies of the struggle, is that these pains are the birth-pangs of a new and better era. This new era will grow out of our best past. On the facts of the past, under the impulse of a new spirit, may the new Canada be erected. Those at home who have learned the lessons of these troublous times, the returned soldiers, and the women now entrusted with the power of the ballot, will hopefully combine to "build Jerusalem, in Canada's green and pleasant land."

In order to solve the problems before us, we must appeal to the latent heroism of every citizen. It is not to an easy, but to a hard task that we are called. Peace is not a negative quantity, the mere absence of war; but a positively interesting and challenging experience. I cannot deal now with our specific tasks, such as the re-absorption of our demobilized soldiers, immigration, employment, internal reconstruction of our political fabric, and our relation to

the Empire. But I would mention some of the great principles according to which I believe the better Canada can be developed.

1. Personality is more vital than property. The soul is of more value than the body. Things have worth only so far as they subserve persons. All organizations and institutions and laws are useless or even harmful unless they minister to the souls of living human beings. The essence of immorality lies treating a person as if he were a mere thing. The test of advancing civilization is increasing regard for personality. In the new Canada we shall place the rights of persons above the rights of property. Industrial organization was made for man, not man for industrial organization. For generations men have been attending mainly to economic results, and leaving the human results to look after themselves. We must in the future place foremost the human, the personal. This principle, if consistently and universally applied, would mean a new Canada.

2. Service, not self-seeking, is the standard of manhood. Life is true and noble in proportion as it is a *ministerium* and not a *magisterium*. He who serves most, lives best.

3. In public life, loyalty to principle must override loyalty to party, if any conflict between the two arise. Party government may be the best available method of conducting our country's affairs, but it is only safe and serviceable as long as it is not supreme. Conscience and principle are the ultimate standards, and demand ultimate loyalty.

4. Production, not speculation, is the true source of wealth. Nothing can take the place of the basic industries.

5. Conservation of wealth, resources and energies must expel the wastefulness for which this continent has been notorious.

6. The prevention of evils is better than their cure. Prophylactic medicine is more useful than therapeutic in every domain of national life. To save and develop the child is more profitable and easy than to reclaim the adult.

7. Formation is greater than reformation. It is better to start things right than to put things right. Herein lies the great function of education. The established system of German education has been distinguished by its extraordinary precision of aim, its high standards of intellectual attainment, its liberal encouragement of

organized scientific research, its wide diffusion and convenience of access. But it has grave defects. It confuses external discipline with personal self-control; it confuses mere regimentation with the corporate spirit; it slays individuality and spontaneity; it organizes men, but does not inspire them; it cultivates them, but does not love them; it makes a mighty State, but neither a democracy nor a church; it construes culture in terms of intellect rather than of character. We must learn the good and avoid the evil in our enemy's system. Efficacy is desirable, but bare efficacy is as unmoral as electricity. The more important consideration is, "To what end is the efficacy directed? In what spirit is it applied?" Our schools must essay the double task of endeavoring to impart both love of knowledge and care for conduct, love of adventure and readiness to endure routine; capacity for individual initiative, and patience in the work of scientific co-operation.

8. There will be a closer combination of State and individual effort. The State may supervise, suggest, even control and direct to a greater extent than heretofore; but the State must not eliminate the spontaneity and initiative of the individual. The future lies neither with an exclusive socialism nor an exclusive individualism, but with a socialized individualism.

Our gallant dead laid down their lives for their country's freedom and future. Are those who survive willing to make their country worthy of this sacrifice? The dead will be commemorated by marble and brass, by monument and window. But they deserve a better memorial even than this. Let us erect as their monument a new and better Canada, purer, chaster, more temperate, more industrious, kindlier, juster, more ready to serve man and to fear God.

*THE ALARMING PROBLEM OF THE SUB-NORMAL CHILD.*

C. K. CLARK, M.D., LL.D., SUPERINTENDENT, TORONTO GENERAL HOSPITAL.

To those who are carrying on the work of looking after the so-called feeble-minded, the tragedy seems one of the most appalling that the human race has fallen heir to. Misunderstood, driven from pillar to post, condemned to the same punishments as those who have been more fortunate in their birth, if not in their environment—these weaklings are too often the victims of a system devoid of sympathy, and one might say, common sense. It is only recently that we have succeeded in getting this community interested, and it will take years of education to bring the public to a complete understanding of the problem. In the meanwhile, those of us who have taken it on ourselves to keep public opinion stirred up, must be content to hear ourselves called sentimentalists, hare-brained reformers, and other unpleasant things; still, that has no effect in the way of preventing us from doing what is a manifest duty. Study this question in the schools of experience, which I have attended for more than forty years, and you will learn of man's inhumanity to man, and realize that some of our so-called civilization has failed to rectify wrongs which are obvious to those who are familiar with them. The trouble is that the majority of unthinking people are only too willing to set themselves up as authorities on all affairs of the mind, and to constitute themselves expert psychiatrists and psychologists without the slightest hesitation. Twelve tried men and true are supposed to be able to decide on the insanity or sanity of any individual, and Jack is as good as his master when it comes to dealing with grading mentality all the way from idiocy to genius.

Take a day off and study law as administered in a Police Court, and see how much consideration the individual receives, and then let me tell you how this system works out. The officials are generally excellent and intelligent men; but there is no attempt made to dispense what should be scientific justice rather than a species of justice founded on the presumption that people are just as much alike as the bricks in a wall—sixty cases decided in sixty minutes, or something like that.



The same criticisms must apply to the school system, which is not interested in the individual so much as in the average standard pupil, if such a pupil exist. Teachers are not to blame because they have not been taught even the first principles of abnormal psychology, and they receive but little help from the psychological frills which adorn the curriculum.

Now the abnormal child is the greatest clog the ordinary school has imposed on it, not only that the whole school suffers from his presence, but the defective or insane child himself is apt to be unfairly and harshly treated by teachers who are not informed of the defect or disease of their pupil. A few days ago a clergyman attended a clinic for the feeble-minded, and at its completion said, "I had no idea that this problem was so intricate, so variegated, so far-reaching. I am simply appalled and confused beyond measure by it." Now, what had happened? There were on this occasion, some twenty-two children, between the ages of sixteen and infancy, examined. The majority were feeble-minded; some were insane, some backward owing to unfortunate environment, others quite normal, with a mark of interrogation after them. To show that it required a well-cultivated sense of discrimination, to say nothing of a wide experience, I shall give some of the details of what happened.

The first patient was a girl of fifteen, pretty, attractive, but absolutely without any sense of morality. She had come from the Juvenile Court, had proved quite unmanageable at home, and already had strayed from the path of virtue. A careful physical examination revealed the fact that she had many of the stigmata of degeneracy, was in fact hopeless from a social standpoint. The average observer would say, "What an attractive, pleasant girl!" The trained observer would soon recognize that the only hope for this child was to be cared for in an institution, for life, where she would be happy and safe. Turn her at liberty, and at once the prostitutes would receive another recruit. At school she had reached the Senior Second book.

No. 2 had almost a similar history. She was a typical English defective, sent out to Canada to develop what nature and heredity had denied her—a properly developed brain. She, too, was already on the road to prostitution.

No. 3, a girl of fifteen, Junior Second book, already had married two soldiers, both alive at present. One wonders how clergymen

could be found to undertake the wedding ceremony, when the girl is obviously under age, and just as obviously defective. This girl was actively syphilitic and doubly a menace to society.

No. 4, a child of four, already insane as a result of syphilis handed down by her parents. Fortunately, this poor little wreck will not live long.

No. 5, a defective woman, whose criminal career was shocking; syphilitic of course, and living with a defective man of worse type than herself; both so-called dope fiends.

Many of the twenty-two were harmless defectives; two or three were anti-social on account of unsatisfactory home conditions, foolishly indulgent parents, etc. Two were cases of developing dementia præcox, and although this was only an average clinic, it shows that the problem was not one to be dealt with by anyone untrained. So, after all, the practical sentimentalist has some arguments that will take a lot of confronting.

Now, when you recollect that among the average school children between two and three per cent. are defective, it will be apparent that these children must be detected and provided for, as they hinder the development of the normal pupils and are not receiving the treatment best for themselves. Not only that, they are a distinct menace to the morality of the school if they evidence sexual precocity and abnormality, as is so often the case; one or two defective children can and do often corrupt a whole school community. The instances which have come under the observation of the clinic during the last two years are striking enough to serve as object lessons to the whole teaching profession.

Without going into unpleasant details, it is enough to say that on each occasion, one or two defectives contaminated the whole moral atmosphere, and this moral degeneration must of necessity have its effect on the future life of those who came under its pestilential influence.

We are the dumping ground for large numbers of defective and degenerate people of the Old World; 20 per cent. of the immigrants would be a fair percentage to have on the records of our Psychiatric Clinic, Toronto General Hospital; whereas actually 54 per cent. are found.

In a centre as large as Toronto or Hamilton, the appointment of an experienced psychiatrist who will do the weeding out is the proper solution, and he can, without much difficulty, decide on the cases to be removed from the classes. The real problem does not occur with the children whose defects stand glaringly patent to the ordinary observer, but with the high-grade defectives, or morons, as they are called by American writers, and the early cases of dementia præcox, who are never detected by the teacher, and who invariably resents the remarkable behavior of these diseased children.

In smaller cities, towns, villages and the country, the work of weeding out might be done by properly trained psychiatrists appointed by the Provincial Department of Education, the selection of such officials being made without the slightest regard for their political pull. In other words, such men or women should have the broadest experience and the highest training, and should be well paid. When such children are weeded out, their treatment and care should of course be carefully provided for. Just how that is to be done in the Toronto community will be explained by Dr. Conboy.

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*THE PLAN WHICH IS PROPOSED FOR THE CARE OF  
THE SUB-NORMAL CHILDREN IN TORONTO.*

F. J. CONBOY, D.D.S., TORONTO, PRESIDENT, ONTARIO ASSOCIATION  
FOR THE CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

*Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,*—At the very outset of my short address this afternoon, may I be permitted to express my pleasure in being privileged to attend this session of the Ontario Educational Association. I have always taken a keen interest in Teachers' Conventions. When a lad at school, it was a matter of great delight to hear that the Teachers of Toronto were to assemble themselves in convention, because that meant that the schools would be closed and we would have a holiday. In later years, when I began to take a greater part in educational affairs, I was just as greatly concerned, but from a different reason. I then realized that conferences of this kind meant, for those who attended, a broader vision, more modern and effective methods, and consequently better and more permanent results. When a teacher comes to the conclusion that he knows everything about his profession worth knowing, when he feels there is nothing to be gained by meeting with his fellows and discussing new and improved methods, that teacher ceases to advance, and must of necessity soon deteriorate.

The modern up-to-date teacher is anxious to obtain knowledge and information upon those subjects and matters which in any way affect his school, and it is to assist in this regard that Dr. Clarke and I appear before you this afternoon.

Recent years have marked a great extension of interest in the occurrence of mental defect. The recognition of such defect as a factor in most social ills, and the proofs of its strongly hereditary nature, are leading to a broader view and a more far-reaching policy among all progressive workers for social betterment.

We now see how inevitably the victims of an unfortunate heredity drift into poverty and crime. We seek to provide for them in proper institutions a special environment where, in place of these dire results, they may live happy and relatively useful lives. But our policy of prevention involves a further and far more valuable result. It is destined to prevent the occurrence of mental defect in



society at large. Since these defectives quite often represent degenerate lines of the human family, we may by segregation of the sexes eliminate these lines and thus greatly simplify the manifold problems which they have occasioned. Accordingly, we are laying more and more stress upon the custodial aspect of these institutions.

Of all the unfortunate dependents with which we have to deal the feeble-minded are the most worthy of our sympathy and help. As we walk up and down the streets of our large city, as we visit the hospitals and charitable institutions, we see many persons in a most painfully distressing condition, and while we have for these a certain amount of sympathy because of their helplessness and suffering, we are nevertheless quite aware of the fact that their calamity is the result of their own carelessness and foolishness. Had they acted wisely, had they observed the ordinary rules of health, they would not have been in their present condition. But not so with the mentally defective; they are not responsible for their unfortunate state; they had no agency or choice in the matter; they have no ability or power to cure or even help themselves; they are absolutely and wholly dependent upon their more fortunate relatives and friends. And how have we treated them?

The majority of these boys and girls have been sent to the Public School, where they have received very little benefit. It is now generally acknowledged that the feeble-minded need special treatment, and that it is unfair, unjust and cruel to strive to force them to accomplish the impossible and to hold their own in comparison and in competition with normal children.

The teachers do their best, but under conditions existing in the ordinary classroom, and with a course of study arranged for normal pupils, neither extra time and attention, nor the most sympathetic and kindly treatment, to say nothing of criticism, scolding and corporal punishment (which, I am pleased to say, is a thing of the past, as far as the mentally defective are concerned), can give to these pupils the training they need, in order that they may live happy and useful lives.

The feeble-minded feel that they are under a handicap and are at a disadvantage, and no matter how hard they may try, they cannot accomplish the tasks, which seem easy to the ordinary pupil; consequently they become discouraged, dissatisfied and unhappy; unfortunately, they are the butt of nicknames, crude jokes, unfair

criticism and cowardly ridicule, on the part of some of their most thoughtless fellow-pupils. They are misunderstood, misjudged, taken advantage of, and disciplined for misdemeanors for which they are not properly responsible; consequently they get to hate school and become truants. Then again they do not receive the protection they so much need. They are weak and easily fall victims to designing people; they are all potential criminals, and when allowed to roam the streets, where opportunities to anti-social acts are always present, they become thieves, incendiaries and criminals.

*Unfair to Parents.*—The attendance of the feeble-minded at the Public Schools is a source of constant worry and discouragement to their parents. They know that their mentally defective child is not doing well at school; that he is a burden to the teacher and cannot associate as an equal with other pupils; and, worst of all, they are fully aware that he is not receiving that training which will enable him to become fairly self-supporting, and they tremble when they consider what will become of him when he no longer has their protection and support. In the vast majority of cases, the parents become so discouraged that they take the child from school and allow him to roam the streets.

*Unfair to Teachers.*—In fairness to our teachers, the feeble-minded should be removed from our Public Schools. It is unreasonable to expect a teacher to do successful work if she had from forty-five to fifty normal children and a mentally defective in her class. The feeble-minded child will demand as much time and attention as any four normal pupils. This must be given at the expense of the other pupils in the class, and as the Inspector will insist that the entire class be kept up to standard, it will entail upon the teacher a great deal of extra work and worry. Then add to this the discouragement of finding that after much careful attention and painstaking effort, her work in connection with the feeble-minded child has been a failure.

The mentally defective are nearly always hard to discipline; they cannot be controlled; they cannot be held responsible for their actions, and consequently commit misdemeanors for which it would be cruel to punish them, but which cause disorder and disturbance in the classroom; other pupils take advantage of the leniency shown the feeble-minded and try to do similar things without being disciplined.

The teacher has an added responsibility when the **sub-normal** girl becomes older, in that she and the **principal** must protect her from the other pupils, and protect the other pupils from the demoralizing influence of the feeble-minded girl. Then they are also a constant worry in regard to the safety of school property, as many are dishonest and incendiary.

*Unfair to Other Pupils.*—The existing arrangement of having the sub-normal in the Public School is a distinct detriment to the normal children; for a normal child to be forced to sit near and be associated with a feeble-minded pupil is little short of *criminal*; it may result in *physical, mental and moral degeneracy*. To be placed in such a position that you are forced to be continually watching a feeble-minded person and expecting them to do some irresponsible thing is nerve-racking. It must necessarily take the child's attention away from the school work and result in unsatisfactory educational progress. In some cases the feeble-minded exert considerable influence over certain of their fellow-pupils; they encourage them to neglect their work, to be careless and disobedient and often to become truants. Many are immoral, and some very startling cases of the demoralizing effect of the feeble-minded upon the normal pupils have been proven in connection with the work of the Psychiatric Clinic.

Perhaps I may be able to give you some slight idea of the influence of the feeble-minded upon the normal children by reading the following report which I received from the Clinic:

#### PSYCHIATRIC CLINIC, TORONTO GENERAL HOSPITAL.

Opened in April, 1914.

From April, 1914, to March 31st, 1917.

Total number who have attended Clinic.....	1,890
Total number under 15 years of age who have attended Clinic	1,026

#### REASONS FOR ATTENDING CLINIC.

Stealing .....	405
Setting fire .....	69
Bodily violence .....	146
Immorality .....	62
Truancy and running away from home.....	224
Backward at school .....	120
	<hr/>
	1,026
Total number of school age suffering from syphilis.....	62
Total number of school age, sent from the Juvenile Court and diagnosed as feeble-minded .....	651

*Unfair to Taxpayers.*—To keep the feeble-minded in the Public School is a poor proposition, financially. Each mentally defective child in the Public School costs the ratepayers directly \$52 per annum; as has been pointed out, they demand as much of the teacher's time and attention as four normal pupils; so we might reasonably claim that each costs the School Board over \$200 per annum. Under any reasonable plan, the cost of educating and training, which might fairly be charged to the School Board, would not exceed \$100. Of course in this amount I do not include the cost of food or clothing, because they are not receiving these things from the School Board under the present arrangement. It can easily be seen that to take the pupils from the Public School and place them in a proper institution would mean a great saving of the people's money from an educational standpoint. Then, when you consider that the money now spent is almost entirely wasted, and that the feeble-minded frequently occasion serious damage to school property, we are convinced that our present method of dealing with the feeble-minded is a very poor business proposition.

What has been the final result of sending the mentally defective to the Public Schools for a time, and then allowing them to roam the streets? To find an answer to this question, we might ask those who conduct and supervise the work of refuges, orphanages and other public charities; those who relieve the destitute, who try to rescue the fallen and reclaim the vicious; those who are judges, magistrates and police authorities, and have to do with criminals; those, I say, who have charge of our charitable and penal institutions—the institutions which swallow up about one-third of our revenue. And what will they say? There is only one answer. We have allowed them to drift until they became ne'er-do-weels, loafers, tramps, paupers, drunkards, incendiary, vicious and criminal. This is the inevitable result; for the mentally defective, left to their own resources, can never be self-supporting; they are always dependent, usually indeed far worse.

Now, what do we propose to do, according to the plan submitted to the Provincial Government, the City Council, the Board of Education and the Separate School Board, and which met with their approval?

(1) The feeble-minded children are to be taken from school and placed upon Farm Colonies. Arrangements have been made for



two Industrial Farm Colonies, one for Boys, on the 2nd Concession of Markham, and one for Girls, on Bathurst Street. These Colonies are within ten miles of the city, and arrangements will be made to have buses meet the Metropolitan car and convey the visitors to the Colony. The buildings will be constructed upon the Cottage Plan, and will be simple, inexpensive, fireproof, and as home-like as possible. Each cottage will accommodate about fifty pupils.

Both of these sites are now owned by the City, and the City Council has consented to set aside a sufficient amount of land for this purpose, to erect the necessary buildings, and to place the Colonies under the Industrial Farm management.

(2) As a large number of pupils will come from the Public Schools, the Board of Education has consented to appoint a Psychiatrist, who will act in conjunction with the Chief Inspector and determine what pupils shall be allowed to attend the Farm Colony, and to contribute \$100 per annum for each pupil sent to the Colony.

(3) The Separate School Board has been urged to make the necessary provision for sending the feeble-minded of the Separate Schools to the Colony also, and pay \$100 per pupil per annum for the maintenance of each.

(4) The Provincial Government having provided in the Auxiliary Classes Act (Clause 13) for a special grant for this purpose, has fixed the amount of the grant at \$50 per annum for each pupil in the institution.

This, in general, is the plan which has been adopted. I need say nothing in support of an Industrial Farm Colony on the Cottage Plan. It is now regarded by all as the ideal way of building a custodial institution for the feeble-minded. The day of the large building, hard to heat, hard to keep clean, and housing thousands of inmates, is gone forever. No really good institution is now built upon that plan. The simple, cheap cottage, accommodating about 50 pupils, has taken its place.

In regard to the location of the Colonies, there may be some difference of opinion. The extreme sentimentalist may denounce the whole proposition immediately, declaring that the Colonies are to be placed too near the Industrial Farm, that a stigma will be placed upon the institution, and the parents will not allow their children to attend.

But let us not form too hasty a judgment, and before we arrive

at a decision in such an important matter, let us thoughtfully consider the following facts:

(1) That the need for a Farm Colony for the Feeble Minded is extremely urgent.

(2) That the parents of the mentally defective are reasonable people, that they love their children, and will not be deterred by silly sentiment from giving them the treatment which they so much need.

(3) That the men upon the Industrial Farm are human; some of them are the best fellows in the world, but unfortunately are slaves to the drink habit.

(4) That these men would not be allowed upon the Farm Colony except when sent to do a certain work. They would then be supervised.

(5) That the boys upon the Farm Colony will be divided into classes, and under continual supervision, whether at work, at school, or at play.

(6) That there will be other institutions beside the Industrial Farm and the Farm Colony upon this large tract of land. Sites have been already selected for an Aged Men's Home, and an Aged Couples' Home.

(7) That, as the sites are owned by the city, there will be no present financial outlay for land. The city owns 735 acres of land, and as the farm population has decreased over 40% as a result of Prohibition, there is not now a sufficient number of men upon the farm to till the soil. The high-grade mentally defectives can be taught to do farm work acceptably.

(8) The cost of administration and equipment will be greatly reduced. One superintendent, one office-staff, one water-supply system, one sewage disposal plant, one bake-shop, etc., will do for all the institutions.

(9) The different institutions can co-operate and assist each other, and thus save considerable expense. The women and girls can sew and knit, the men and boys manage the farm and supply the vegetables.

(10) The sites are convenient to the city, so that the parents can frequently visit their children.

(11) Working under the Industrial Farm Act, additional land

## PLAN PROPOSED FOR CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED.

can be expropriated if necessary, and money voted if urgently needed, without submitting the matter to the people.

This is the plan on which we intend to make a start in the proper care and treatment of our feeble-minded children. We hope to be able to train the high-grade mentally defectives that they may live happy and fairly useful lives; the low grade will, as formerly, be sent to Orillia. The removal of the feeble-minded from the ordinary class-room will lead to greater efficiency in our schools, because it has been generally recognized that their presence has impeded the progress of the normal children, and that the best possible results have not been obtained.

And now in the closing hours of this great convention may I be permitted to express the sincere wish that you have all received great benefit and profit by your attendance here. I trust that as a result of these meetings you may go back to the places from which you have come, to the schools in which it is your honor and privilege to labor, with a broader vision, a greater enthusiasm and a new inspiration to do better and more efficient work than you have ever done before.

The teachers of this Dominion have a great privilege, opportunity and responsibility in their work of educating and training the boys and girls, who, at the conclusion of this great war, will define the policy and determine the destiny of our country. Our great and outstanding duty at the present time is to increase the efficiency of our school system, and the first step in this direction is the proper care and treatment of the feeble-minded. A great deal has been accomplished in this direction during the past year, but much still remains.

The system which has been planned for the City of Toronto should be applied to the entire Province. A careful survey of the problem from the provincial standpoint should be made, so that it may be determined where the Industrial Farm Colonies should be located. Interest must be aroused and people educated as to the great need. This can best be done by the organization of local associations and the establishment of Psychiatric Clinics in connection with our hospitals.

The Dominion Government should be urged to pass the necessary enactment and to appoint properly qualified officials to see that

our country is not over-run by the feeble-minded from other countries. Finally, the Provincial Government should establish institutions for the permanent care of the adult mentally defectives.

The protection and care of all the feeble-minded must be continued as long as it is necessary for their own good and for the good of the community; that is, during the whole course of their lives. Recent research has shown that in about seventy-five per cent. of cases the cause of the mental defect has been hereditary, descending from one or both parents or from their direct ancestors. Hence, while it is our duty to be kind to the feeble-minded, to protect them from wrong, insult, injury and injustice, to do our best for them by training, education and opportunity. We are wronging them if we allow them to become parents as we have done in the past, wronging their miserable children, who should never have been born, and wronging our country and our city by entailing on them that heavy burden of expense, and that heavier burden of crime, misery and degeneracy which the mental defectives always occasion.

Now, what is your duty as a teacher? You are vitally concerned. The work of your profession has been rendered more difficult and less efficient by the presence of the feeble-minded in the class-room. You know full well that your efforts to train and educate the mental defective have been a failure; you have seen them leave school to drift into poverty and crime. What are you going to do about it, you men and women who know the situation, who understand the problem, you men and women who occupy such a high and responsible position in society, who are leaders in thought and in reform? Are you going to continue to allow matters to drift, or will you take an active interest in this great reform? Will you strive to form an association to educate the people of your locality, and to ally yourselves with others who have a like ambition and purpose, so that by our combined efforts we may find a satisfactory and adequate solution for the great problem?



*THE REPORT OF THE LEGISLATION COMMITTEE,  
PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.*

The Legislation Committee is composed of the officers of the Section and any other persons who can be of help in the furthering of the movement to have the resolutions of our Section adopted by the Department of Education, and placed on our statute books, or embodied in the Regulations. It will be seen that the work is largely a matter of public education, and it is part of the duty of each Public School teacher of the Province to understand the nature and purpose of each of our resolutions, and to devote some time to planning how the purpose may be attained; and to communicate to those in charge of the work any suggestions that may occur to him.

The resolutions of last year were prepared for the press and sent out in limited numbers to the various institutes. They also appear in the Report of the Proceedings of the O. E. A. for 1916.

Some of our resolutions refer to unsatisfactory conditions which now exist and have existed for some time. Some of them refer to conditions with which we were threatened, and which our resolutions were more or less instrumental in warding off—temporarily or permanently. These are formally sent to the Minister of Education and the officials of his department, and from time to time, as occasion offers, or occasions are made, one or more of the resolutions come up for consideration, now with one official and now with another. But in addition, one or more formal appointments are secured with the Minister, and selected resolutions are urged before him. The Deputy Minister, the Superintendent of Education, the Chief Inspector, and others, are usually present on these occasions.

While all our resolutions are retained until they are granted, we have adopted the policy of emphasizing certain resolutions which, for the time being, are outstanding in importance. This year your Committee emphasized the resolutions dealing with:—

1. The Passing of the Superannuation Scheme.
2. The making of the School Year correspond with the Academic Year, and not the Calendar Year.
3. The Qualifications Required for Public School Inspectors, so that experience and professional skill will have more recognition than mere academic attainments.

4. The securing of the co-operation of the Local Institutes in our movements, and their financial support.

Of course, the most outstanding resolutions for this year were those relating to the enactment of a superannuation scheme. In this movement we had the sympathy and hearty co-operation of the Minister and his officials; and many indeed are the conferences we have had, during the year, relating to this subject. There were many things which seemed to say that if we could not secure the passage of a superannuation scheme this year, the whole matter would be postponed indefinitely. Knowing this, no stone was left unturned that would, by any chance, forward the movement; and fortunately our labors have been crowned with success.

But although the present Bill is one of the best which has so far been adopted in any state or country, of which we know, there is much to be done yet, to get the scheme in proper working order. Regulations will have to be drafted and precedents created. Two good representatives will have to be chosen by the O. E. A. to be members of the Superannuation Commission. For some time these will need to be in constant consultation, and should be convenient to Toronto—persons in whom the members of our profession have every confidence.

The changing of the school year to correspond with the academic, so that the reports of our schools would be made for the year ending with the 30th June, was another of the resolutions which your Committee emphasized. The extra burden which the present way of reporting our Public and High Schools, as well as the inaccuracy or even falseness of the impressions which the public statistics convey, were urged before the Minister; and we are of the opinion that in the near future, legislation will be passed which will remedy this evil. As the change is dependent upon a statute, not upon the Regulations, it is more difficult to effect; but the session just closed has shown how much important progressive legislation can be passed in one year, and we think it is quite within the province of probability that if we urge for the change this year, we may be successful. "Strike while the iron is hot," is an adage that is as good as it is old. Such a piece of legislation alone would be a very good reward for a whole year's work.

Your Committee urged the re-adjustment of the qualifications for Public School Inspectors, which at present over-emphasizes academic requirements, so that practically all our inspectorships are

going to High School men who have very little experience in Public School work. The following is quoted from *The Schoolmaster*, the official organ of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales, in its issue of January 13th, of this year, under the title, "Inspectors and Experience":—

"Lately, the Master of Balliol said that '*the ordinary man, with his practical experience of the way things really work, has advantages that do much to balance the supposed superiority of the "academic" student; it is the old question—which takes us deeper into life, books or life itself?*' It used to be thought, at the Board of Education, that elementary school teachers could not be promoted to the higher posts because their academic attainments were insufficient, but the standpoint for that view rocks under the feet to-day, if it has not already slipped out of existence. Induction, from experience, not deductions, from mere reasoning, is the vital method, which accounts for British success more than any other single thing."

"There are now in the inspectorates, men who have passed from the elementary schools and the Training Colleges to the Universities, won "honors" there, and are doing, in their districts, work at least as scholarly and efficient as that of their colleagues with Public School antecedents. Men like these have accumulated special experience such as inspectors specially need; they know the life of the elementary school and its possibilities, the work of the teacher in these schools, and its disabilities; they know the Training Colleges from inside; and they are likely to be at least as able and even more constructively valuable critics and men of suggestion than their colleagues can possibly be." The world moves. Let us help it to move in the right direction.

In the matter of desiring the co-operation and financial support of the Local Institutes, we are pleased to say we are making progress. This year's report is again an advance on all former years, as the report of the Treasurer will show. The success which attended the united work of the Institutes for a superannuation scheme this year gives us some idea of what an influence the teachers of the Province could exert if they would co-operate. Why can we not agree upon one, or two, outstanding resolutions and work for its, or their enactment.

S. NETHERCOTT, *Vice-President,*  
*Chairman of Committee.*

*REPORT OF THE STANDING COMMITTEE ON SUPPLEMENTARY READING.*

I have little to add to my former reports on Supplementary Readers. These reports have been printed in the Minutes. I again repeat my former condemnation of the Fourth Reader. Some of the selections are incorrect English, some are vulgar, and many are quite too difficult for the comprehension of minds of children 12-14 years of age. I might cite as examples:—

Hands All Round.

A Hymn of Empire.

Dost Thou Look Back?

England, My England.

Many others might be enumerated,\* but these will probably be sufficient to prove my point. Some will argue that we should give students good, difficult work to study—not easy. That depends on the age of the pupils, and it also depends upon our purpose in teaching literature. My idea is that we teach literature, first and most important, to create and foster a love for good books; second, to enable the pupil to understand and therefore appreciate good books. But if we fail in the first, we lamentably fail in the second and all else. Note how avid the pupils are when the lesson is, say, Dickens in the Camp, The Waterfowl, The Unnamed Lake, Daffodils; and note how reluctantly the books are opened when Hudson Strait, by Agnes C. Laut.; The Great North-West, by Baker; or True Greatness, by George Eliot, is the lesson for the day.

Again I repeat, all the books of the Public School should be prepared by Public School teachers, not by University or High School men, or worse, prepared by those who have long since ceased to be engaged in teaching in any school. They do not see the situation; they cannot understand it; they have long since forgotten it; maybe they never knew it. Surely it is only fair to believe that those who teach the children are best qualified to know their powers of mental grasp; to know what they enjoy; to know what is best for them. Let University men prepare University texts; High School men, High School texts; and Public School teachers, Public School texts. We demand it, and it is only fair it should be granted.



Next and last point: The School Supplementary Readers should be carried by the Public Library. Why should any centre spend two moneys, when one expenditure would be sufficient? Let the principals of the schools make out their lists, both for Public and High Schools, give it to the Library Board in June, ask the Board to get so many copies of each set. The Library will get the legislative return. The books will then be available for the students and for the public as well.

Respectfully submitted,

W. F. MOORE,  
*Chairman.*

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### SECRETARY'S REPORT.

CHAS. G. FRASER, PRINCIPAL, MANNING AVENUE SCHOOL, TORONTO.

*Mr. President, Fellow Teachers,*—Again, I wish the privilege of thanking you for the continued confidence you showed me last year, in re-electing me your Secretary. I have been an officer of this branch of the O. E. A. for over twenty years, almost continuously—you minute-secretary, your press reporter, your treasurer, your secretary, and your vice-president. The year I was vice-president, the President did not think it worth while to attend the meeting, and I had the privilege of occupying the chair; but I have not had the honor of being your president.

I have taken the time, lately, to look over the minutes of our department—now a section—since 1891, when the Ontario Educational Association, with its six departments, was formed, and I have made a list of the officers for each year since that time. Each year called up many memories that were very pleasant, and faces that have become very dear in friendship. Some of them are no longer with us.

If all is well, a circle of “The Guards” will be organized this year, to be composed of those who are really veterans in our ranks, so that we may have a special reunion meeting each Easter Monday night—a social function, in which “*the boys*” will have an opportunity of shouldering their crutch to show how fields were won. The latest victory that has crowned our efforts—a superannuation scheme—not being the last by any means.

I am reminded of how complicated the work of our section now is compared with what it was “some twenty years ago.” How many movements have been organized, how many reforms introduced, how many changes made, during that time; and it is very gratifying to us to be able to say to the authorities that they cannot point to a single instance of their having had to regret the following of our advice.

When we remember the little amphitheatre which then held our whole Association, and think of the vast audience which now attends our evening meetings—when we recall the great rejoicing we had when it was announced that we had reached the three

hundred mark so we all could get a free ticket home, and think of the confidence with which we now look forward to having a thousand teachers from all parts of the Province in attendance, and over three hundred of them in our own section—when we compare the changing personnel of our former membership with the reunions which we now have, where we older teachers “renew our youth like the eagle”—when we look at our platform with its carefully chosen planks and remember the resolutions of those former years—when we recall the way our representatives were met by the Minister of Education, and the open antagonism which was shown—*arrogantly shown*—and see the way a deputation of teachers representing public school interests is received to-day by the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister, the Superintendent of Education, or even by the Prime Minister himself and the members of his Cabinet—when we recall how one of our resolutions after another has been adopted by the Department and placed in the Regulations or on the statute book—when we remember the changed attitude of the sister sections of the O. E. A. to us—when we remember how we had to bribe reporters to have certain features included in the papers, and know that now the papers take the trouble to write those on our programme to ask for advanced copies of their papers to be read before our section, we feel proud of the place the Public School Section now holds in our Educational Council, of our sound policy and our liberal-conservative ideals regarding educational problems and of our steady yearly progress. All this has taken work. It did not just grow, like Topsy.

The work for the present year was, for your Secretary, along the lines of former years. We had to prepare the minutes and the resolutions for publications and distribution, and also the various papers which were read before our section had to be arranged for the Report of the Proceedings. These occupy one hundred pages in the published report this year; and this is not too great, in proportion to our membership.

The work of carrying on an agitation for a superannuation scheme required much time and thought. It was *now* or *never*. What would advance the cause? Who should be written to? What points could be urged in its favor? What point might be urged against the proposal, and how could it be met successfully? Who could assist, and where? What danger loomed ahead, and what

provision could be made to meet it? What point could we inquire about, or what favor could we ask, that might have a tendency to fan the little spark into a flame? The result was satisfactory—a conflagration.

Our relations with the President this year have been very cordial indeed. During the whole year he has been planning for a successful meeting for 1917; and the programme you have before you is a monument to his skill and efforts. He has maintained the ideals of Presidents in the past, and even added something to them. It is easy to arrange for anything for our programme when we know what is wanted. We are delighted to remember the cordial way in which one after another consented to take a place on your programme. Your name was a “Sesame” indeed. In looking over the review of the programme of the whole Association which appeared in the educational column of the “*Mail and Empire*” a couple of weeks ago, I was pleased to notice that practically every topic we have on our programme was referred to, or mentioned. They were grouped according to the various absorbing interests or educational movements of the present time to show how complete our “bill of fare” was.

At one time this spring, I feared that my strength would give way under the special strain I had to bear; but I am pleased to say I am feeling more like myself again—eating, sleeping, working, with a relish that I feared was slipping from my grasp. This reminds me that some day I *must* pass the work on. I hope I shall be able to lay it down as gracefully as leaders in the present struggle are giving place to others, accepting the subordinate with a generosity, a cheerfulness, an alacrity, which is a marvel indeed, applying themselves to the lesser “bit” with a whole-heartedness that is an example to men and angels. When you think it is time for a change, I will gladly accept your suggestion.

I trust your stay with us will be pleasant, and our meeting together profitable. Make friendships here. Speak to those near you. They are your brothers and sisters, they also are devoting their time to the conservation and development of the child-life of Ontario, striving to instil ideals in the hearts of our boys and girls that will make them men and women of true British principles and ideals. We will do our work better for having met; and we hope the days that are to come will be brighter because of our remembrances of these hours.

CHAS. G. FRASER,  
*Secretary.*



*RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.*

PASSED APRIL 10, 11, AND 12, 1917. . .

## RESOLUTIONS.

*I. Expression of Appreciation.*

1. That we again express our appreciation of the concessions granted to us and of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education; Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, K.C., Acting Minister of Education, the worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Seath, and the other officials of the Department of Education, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our section.

2. That this Section of the Ontario Education Association, representing 12,000 Ontario Public School Teachers and 85 per cent. of those engaged in Primary, Secondary and Training Schools of the Province, expresses its appreciation of the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., Minister of Education; the Prime Minister, Sir William Hearst and his other colleagues; Mr. N. W. Rowell, Leader of the Opposition; and the Ontario Legislature, for placing on the Statutes of the Province the Superannuation Act, which, we are confident, will prove the very keystone of the arch of our educational system, ensuring greater stability to the profession, a more highly qualified body of teachers with training bettered by experience, a more contented body of workers whose interest in the Superannuation Fund, increasing from year to year, will represent a tangible expression of the Province's appreciation of faithful service in the great work of nation-building.

*II. The Public School Curriculum.*

3. That the report of the committee on Supplementary Reading be adopted, and the committee be requested to continue its work and make a further report when it has sufficient material therefor; and that the Minister be asked to publish the report as a special bulletin.

*III. Public School Text-books.*

4. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization or revision of a text-book on any subject, he should

give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those who wish may submit a book in type-written form if necessary; and that Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School Text-books.

5. That two committees be appointed (one for each book) (1) to arrange the table of contents of each of the Third and Fourth Readers into two well-graded groups of lessons suitable for the junior and senior class in each book; to prepare (2) an index of the titles of the lessons; (3) an index of the authors; and (4) a pronouncing vocabulary of the proper names.

6. That we disapprove of the inclusion in our readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English; and that a committee be appointed to make a list of the objectionable expressions and lessons to present to the Department.

7. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer may be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

8. That our Geographies be supplied with more and better maps.

9. That the Geography text should be of a convenient size so that pupils could read it with convenience—a companion atlas being supplied for map reference.

10. That a Drill Text-book, suitable for Cadet Corps, be prepared by a competent person.

#### IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

11. That there be a local board of examiners for each inspectorate, to direct the work of the examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work—Public School, High School and Inspectors.

12. That the papers should be marked only by teachers who are actually engaged in teaching Entrance work. In large cities the number of examiners could be proportionately increased.

#### V. *Teachers' Certificates.*

13. That we request the Minister of Education to make such changes in the present requirements of public school inspectors' certificates as will make it possible for public school teachers to

qualify—the essential qualification being *successful public school experience and capability* rather than mere academic standing.

14. That the requirements for a public school inspector's certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a First-Class professional certificate of qualification or a degree in arts granted by a recognized Canadian university;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in public schools, covering all grades of public school work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled, and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a degree in pedagogy in any recognized Canadian university.

15. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the public schools of this Province were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the Provincial University, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

#### VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

16. That the Department of Education be requested to make the School Year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance, etc., made out accordingly.

17. That in the opinion of the Public School Section of the O.E.A., the present method of listing as "*the school population*" all persons of the ages 5-21 (inclusive) serves no good purpose, and has proved grossly misleading to ourselves and to our sister provinces; it should therefore be dropped, and for these figures should be substituted the number of persons of the ages 6-16 (inclusive) and the number of children of compulsory attendance age, i.e., 8-14 (inclusive).

18. That the method of listing the actual number of pupils registered during the year, charging to the school as full year pupils all Entrance class pupils, all young pupils entered in April and September, all pupils admitted from other schools and all pupils removed to other schools during the year has proved very misleading; and the Department of Education should require instead the average monthly registration and the percentage of attendance based on the same.

19. That the purpose of teachers' institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods, but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

20. That we endorse the preparation and use throughout the Province of a Monthly Report Card and also a Continuous Record Card for each pupil.

21. That Report and Record Cards similar to those submitted be printed and distributed throughout the Province and that teachers be urged to give them a trial.

22. That as our present Daily Registers are not suitable as books of original entry for such records, suggestions be made to the Department of Education regarding a proper form for such entries.

23. That the age limit for Cadet Corps be changed in the Provincial Act, from 14 to 18 years, so as to read, as in the Dominion Regulations, "12 to 18 years."

24. That the Cadet Course of work or its equivalent in Physical Training, be made compulsory in all schools where the Board thereof believes the conditions to be favorable.

#### VIII. *An Ontario Educational Gazette.*

25. That we recommend to the consideration of the Honorable the Minister of Education the publication of an Educational Gazette, to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all Departmental regulations, instructions and reports, and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

#### IX. *General.*

26. That this Association approves of the Resolution of the Windsor and Walkerville Association, and continues to urge very strongly its disapproval of (1) melodramatic and comic picture shows; (2) the manufacture and sale of cigarettes; (3) the comic supplements that are appearing in some of our Canadian papers.

27. That before people are allowed to marry they should present a certificate from a qualified medical practitioner that they are mentally and physically qualified for the rights of parenthood.

28. That we express our approval of the plan proposed by Dr. Conboy for the solution of the problem of the feeble-minded in



Toronto, and that we hope also that provision will be made for the carrying out of such a plan not only in Toronto, but in other places throughout the Province.

X. *Contributions from the Institutes.*

29. That local Teachers' Institutes sending delegates to the Public School Section of the O.E.A. be charged a membership fee of Five Dollars for each hundred members it has; and that one session of the Public School Section be devoted to the work directly proposed for and by the local Institutes.

We thank the local institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this Section of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope *each institute* will, this year, contribute to this fund. Some institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in *every* institute; begin now by sending \$5 or more to the Secretary of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.

The work and aims of the Public School Section of the Ontario Educational Association and of the local teachers' institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each in its own sphere—the Municipality, the County or the Province—is endeavoring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and, by all legitimate means, to improve the conditions under which they labor; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central association and the local institutes.

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## KINDERGARTEN SECTION

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### *HOW CAN WE PREPARE OUR CHILDREN FOR CITIZENSHIP, AND GUIDE THEM IN CHOOSING THEIR SPECIAL LIFE WORK ?*

BY MRS. A. C. COURTICE.

Two main principles are: 1st, By encouraging individuality. 2nd, By providing vocational opportunities for boys and girls of school age. The purpose of education through the public schools is to insure a high type of citizenship and a high social state, by considering the needs of the child and the needs of the community.

The way to improve the mass is by improving the unit, and it is our business to organize our educational system so that opportunities may be given each individual to be the most effective unit possible. Schools generally assume that children are alike, and must have a uniform curriculum dispensed alike to all, whereas the outstanding fact about children is that they are different and should be treated with a large degree of individuality.

#### OBSTACLES TO INDIVIDUALITY.

Large classes are the constant obstacle to any individual attention which every child should have. They interfere with discipline, with self-control, with health of body, mind and soul, while smaller classes tend to do away with punishments and with home work, and to make more possible a knowledge of the child.

Dr. Payson Smith, the new Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts, says: "The need of American schools is not for better teachers of reading, Latin or English, but it is for better teaching of children—the ability to get within the real being of a child and help him to a realization of his own powers to the end that he may make the contribution of his life and service in his own way to the enrichment of citizenship and to the betterment of the world."

#### THE RIGHT BALANCE BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE.

It is indeed a great problem to know how to earn a living—this

is practical; but it is even a greater problem to know how to live—this is ideal. Our homes and schools must both contribute to this double problem.

Already England has appointed a commission to review the whole field of national education, with a view to the requirements of the period of reconstruction. Progressive educators everywhere are feeling that their systems of education are outgrown, and there is a feeling of unrest as they cast about for measures that will remedy defects of the past and prepare to meet the demands of the future.

Thomas W. Churchill, former President of the New York Board of Education, says: "The growth of cities, the removal of people from the land, their crowding together in smaller houses, the specialization of labor—all these have withdrawn from children a great part of the developing influences which were the rule fifty years ago. The equipment of the old-fashioned schools was meagre and poor, but co-operating with them were forces greater than they. There was a freer contact then than now with nature and the outdoor life; there was the old-fashioned home, and there were the old forms of industry, in which children learned skill of hand, correctness of eye, and economy of management. These influences are so essential to the training of the kind of men and women that America must have that there falls to the managers of the public schools the heavy burden of supplying, in so far as possible, what the change of living conditions has taken away from the children."

The general cry nowadays from fathers and mothers is, Give our children a practical education, thorough and effective. Fit them for living and for earning a livelihood!

Perhaps no experiment of these two forces has had a greater public recognition than that of Mr. Wirt, of the Gary Schools in Indiana and in New York, which may help to answer the question we are asking ourselves—How can we prepare our young people for citizenship and for their special life work?

#### THE GARY SCHOOLS.

They are Work, Study and Play schools, with shops, gymnasium and auditorium added to school building, play-grounds and school gardens provided outside. This plan provides the regular desk and seat for about one-quarter of the children. While they are studying the traditional three R's, etc., the rest of the school is distributed in shop and play-ground, gymnasium and studio, or at home.

By this means every child has the varied facilities offered him every day, but it is possible to accommodate in one school building twice the ordinary number of children.

In Canada we have endeavored to introduce a limited amount of vocational training into our public and high schools in order to meet the needs of the pupils and the needs of their communities. As yet the effort has been superficial, and is a patching-up process rather than a vital correlated part of an education system that will stimulate the highest standard of living and efficiency. The cry for health, for economy, for production and for service demands a quick response at the present time, and boys and girls must learn their power to live the right life and to earn an honest living.

We, the citizens of Ontario and Canada, owe it to them to show the way, even at the expense of adopting new types of buildings, new conditions in which to work and play, and, if necessary, a new curriculum. With greater opportunities given in our schools and in our homes too for boys and girls to work with their hands and their heads, yes and their hearts too, there will be a new interest created and a new relationship established between doing and being. The child will realize that he is a creator and that his country needs him because of what he is and what he can do. His country needs him and his community needs him, not only because he knows how to earn a living, but because he knows how to live. In other words, his whole being has gone to school. He will be efficient, but his efficiency will be spiritual as well as material. The ideal and the practical will have met, because he loves to serve, and because he has been taught how to serve.



*FIFTY YEARS OF FEDERATION.*

BY PROF. GEORGE M. WRONG, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

One never ceases to marvel that Federation came about. At the beginning of 1867, what is now Canada consisted of scattered provinces in the East, separated from British Columbia, on the Pacific coast, by a vast wilderness and by mountain ranges across which few white men had ever made their way. Five years later Canada was a great state stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, with a constitution which has stood the test of time, and is probably destined to be permanent in character. Created when the federal constitution of the United States seemed to be breaking down, the Canadian constitution avoids some of the defects of the older system and embodies British traditions of government which have borne the test of time. In these days of quickened national life, when war has made unity the supreme necessity, we may well ask what the Canadian provinces could have done had they not been federated. The magic that united them in 1867 was a common British tradition, and the magic still operates. It seems to link the present with the past in an unbroken connection. It has brought Canada into a terrible war, but it has helped to save her soul, and no real patriot grudges the sacrifice.

If we ask what are the chief changes since 1867, we find that perhaps the most important one is due to the building of railways. Canadian politics have been chiefly concerned with railways, for in a vast country means of communication are the supreme necessity. In 1867 Quebec was remote from Nova Scotia, for there was no band of steel uniting them, and Ontario was almost inconceivably remote from British Columbia. Just before Federation the shortest route to British Columbia was by way of the Isthmus of Panama. If during the last fifty years Canada has become a nation, it is largely because railways have carried ideas as well as commodities.

Other changes are due to the increase of wealth. Canada has now great industries, and these have brought fortunes to a good many. Canada has become, too, a mining country, and mines have brought riches. Fifty years ago the most promising youth of the country turned to the United States for careers. Hardly a family

but had several members there. This has in a large degree ended, and now Americans are seeking careers in Canada. With wealth has come better education. For every hundred students in the University of Toronto fifty years ago there are now probably a thousand, and this is true also of other centres. If Canada is backward in respect to literature and art, it is still true that now there are a dozen interested in these things where fifty years ago there was one. A real national unity has grown up. British Columbia is still remote from the East, even in some of its modes of thought, but there is undoubtedly a common national life, and this is growing stronger every day. The West is more likely to rule the East than to be ruled by it, but there is no serious danger of national disruption. Canada is as real a political unit as the United States.

The outlook of us all upon the world has changed since 1867. At that time the great thought in men's minds was liberty for the masses. If these were given the vote, we should find a wisdom in the people which should make for national well-being. There is a wisdom in the people, as the present war has shown us, and I should be the last to condemn democracy. The present war has proved how enlightening to a nation's spirit liberty can be. But with this we have learned that a true democracy requires an educated people. *Laissez-faire* will not do. Uninstructed liberty runs to anarchy. To-day the state undertakes things which fifty years ago it deemed no part of its duty. It takes charge of education. It carries on great railway enterprises, and is likely in our case to do still more. It refuses to permit the sale of spirituous liquors. It looks after public health with a thoroughness which is new. With the state doing so much, the citizen of the state requires a higher intelligence than was necessary fifty years ago.

We may as well face the fact. No democracy any more than an aristocracy has yet learned how to carry on government effectively. In all the older societies, including even the United States, there are great masses of people who are always underfed. One-quarter of the babies born in England suffer because their mothers had not enough to eat. No society is successful where such conditions exist. Hitherto men have controlled society, and men have failed to correct such evils. Now we have a new experiment. With us, women have been given the vote, and we may hope that woman's help will correct evils which men have failed to correct.

As yet, Canada has few people who lack the necessities of life, though it is deplorably true that slums are growing up in our large cities. Fifty years have seen a great improvement in our standards of living. The houses of the poorest to-day have evidences of well-being hardly known with this class fifty years ago. The picture is not all roseate, for the coming of the foreigner from backward parts of Europe has lowered the general standard of living in the cities. There is, however, independence almost in our atmosphere, and this brings with it a dignity of life which is pleasing.

Perhaps the most striking change in Canada is in breadth of outlook. The separated colonies of fifty years ago thought only of themselves. To Nova Scotia, Upper Canada hardly existed, and there were few who had visions of what the West might become. Now Nova Scotia on the Atlantic has many sons on the Pacific living under the same government, and ponders problems continental in range. More than this, all parts of Canada feel a reality of union with the whole British Empire. The war has matured this feeling. To Canada, Australia and South Africa are now vivid realities. We are beginning to think of India and her problems. The Fathers of Confederation would be startled indeed were they to return to see what confronts us now.

It is always well for a people to try to estimate their own defects. As I have said, democracy is still on trial, and no democratic state is yet, or perhaps ever will be, out of danger. The very magnitude of Canada creates a difficulty in working democratic institutions. The effectiveness of democracy depends upon unity in public opinion. In so vast a country it is hard to get this unity. In England a political leader can address a meeting in the South in the morning and another in the North on the evening of the same day. There are newspapers in England read regularly in every part of the country. In Canada it takes nearly a week to pass from one end of the country to the other. Eastern newspapers are little read in the West, and often the separated peoples are not thinking about the same things. Yet the working of democratic government depends upon union in the same ideals. The difficulty is so real that one sometimes hears of a possible breaking away of the West from the East.

If we dismiss the old idea that a democracy will work well almost by instinct, we must turn to the deeper thought that the

public welfare depends upon the education of the people. No doubt in education we have made progress, but I wonder sometimes whether the progress is equal to the measure of our increased opportunities. We may be thankful that nearly everyone in Canada can read and write. Few of our people, however, are sufficiently trained really to think effectively about our political problems. The masses of the people will always follow leaders, and we may well ask who are our leaders? The answer is that the ablest men in the country are, on the whole, not leading in our political affairs. This is quite natural, for Canada, the land of opportunity, offers a fortune to the men who devote themselves to business. These have no time for politics, and in consequence our political fortunes suffer. It is also true that, in a new country, many grow rich who do not understand the uses and the responsibility of wealth. Money is spent in lavish and sometimes in vicious luxury, which might be used with greater pleasure and profit in more healthful ways. There is too great a gap between the city and the country. In England almost invariably the man of wealth has a place in the country, lives for a good part of his time among country people, and takes an interest and part in agriculture and in the raising of stock. I should like to see every rich man in Canada have such a place in the country and know and learn from our farming people.

It is still true also that our commercial class do not appreciate education as do similar classes in the United States. Many thousands of American business men are graduates of universities. This is not yet true in Canada. Our banks insist on taking clerks at so early an age that they cannot have had an adequate education and a wider outlook on political and economic questions. I doubt if there are half a dozen bankers in Canada who are graduates of a university. The same is largely true of those who are engaged in directing our great railways, the vital national interest of transportation. Probably the worst educated class in the country in relation to their responsibilities consist of the daughters of the well-to-do. These may go to England or France for some kind of training in languages or art, but of training in respect to thought on the problems of society they know almost nothing. Higher education is not the fashion in this class. They rather look down upon those who go to the university, since in the university all classes mingle freely. Yet from this very class of women should come leadership



in regard to social problems. As it is, hardly one of them could read a stiff book dealing with such questions. There is real need of a mission for our only leisure class, the daughters of the well-to-do in respect to their social responsibilities.

Fifty years has seen one remarkable change, at least in Eastern Canada. While half a century ago in this province many of our leaders had been born and educated in the old world, it is true now that they are native of Canada, the product of the life of the country. In a word, we have passed from an imported to a native culture. In our universities the professors, in our law courts the judges, are with comparatively few exceptions, natives of Canada. The same is true of the clergy who are leading in the religious life of the province. The change is not wholly to be admired, for there are many things which the old world can still teach us. We have hardly produced here the depth of literary and classical culture to be found in Europe, and the native Canadian mode of speech leaves something to be desired. Few, however, will doubt that the change is in the interests of our national life. We ought to train our own leaders and create our own traditions. Probably few of us realize the extent to which we have become independent of Europe. Half a century ago political leaders like Sir John Macdonald, George Brown and Alexander Mackenzie were natives of Europe. I doubt if at the present time Ontario sends to Parliament half a dozen members not native to this country. This is less true of the West, but at the same time Canadian national feeling is even stronger in the West than in the East.

Looking forward, one asks what one may hope for in the near future. One thing at least, a deepening sense of the meaning of life and of the variety of its interests. Canada produces an abundant supply of bread, but man does not live by bread alone. It is probably true that as a people we are very deficient in an appreciation of beauty. Our villages can hardly be said to be attractive; they seem unkempt and uncared-for—something that is due largely to the scarcity of labor. Not unnaturally, our cities are better cared for than our villages, and some of them are becoming really beautiful. It is in the growth of the sense of beauty that we shall find a rich source of happiness. There is nothing to discourage us. Our rich men are beginning to show appreciation of artists by buying their pictures, but one could wish the progress were more rapid. The love

of flowers is growing; one is astonished at the beautiful gardens which are now not uncommon. We have a school of poetry full of promise. It is to be hoped that the man who works with his hands will not only gain a larger share of the profits of his labor, when there is profit, but that he will learn how to use well his earnings. There is still too much love of excitement in amusement. An educated people learn to love best the quiet open-air life, with books and music at the home fireside, and with beauty in their surroundings.

One thing above all we are learning in these great and solemn days that what is worth winning in life is won only by labor and sacrifice. Life has given nothing to mortals without great labor, said the pagan poet, and now, in a deeper sense, we are realizing the central truth of Christianity, that our hold on the best in life can be made secure only by sacrifice. It is a sorrowful experience, but, this young nation has not shrunk from learning it, and in this truth lies the best guarantee of our future.

*THE IMAGINATION.*

PROFESSOR J. GIBSON HUME, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF  
PHILOSOPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

The teacher is engaged in the most serious and important business of assisting the undeveloped struggling consciousness of the child to pass from possibility to actuality, as Aristotle calls it, from vague promise to realization or fulfilment of power, capacity, character. We have as teachers in the past given perhaps too much attention to the memory training. We have not neglected the cultivation of the reasoning powers, but the imagination has not received its fair share of attention. Although the imagination may contribute largely to educational-moral development and assist in the business of life, it is apt to be thought that it is rather allied to frivolity. This is due to the fact that the imagination is closely allied to the fancy, and we all know that the fancy may become fanciful or even fantastic. We will need to show how the imagination is related to the fancy, and how it may escape the weakness that attaches to the mere fancy. Just because the whole mental life is a unity, it will turn out that all our several powers and capacities are in some way related. I think we would be correct in calling the earlier more erratic, sportive phases of the consciousness "fancy," and that out of this we need to press forward to the constructive creative imagination which is a later, more developed, expression of the human consciousness. Fancy might be regarded then as an earlier stage of the imagination. Imagination as the wider, more developed, will include in it the fancy, though it passes beyond it. We may illustrate the relation of less to including greater by recalling the well-known antithesis between knowing and doing, between theory and practice. Instead of setting these in sharp opposition, as is usually done, I would be inclined to say that we have a case of earlier and later, less and more. I would regard the merely knowing attitude as the simpler, earlier, in the conscious life. Knowing is a stage in doing. Instead then of opposing them I would regard knowing as a kind of incipient doing that must be developed into more adequate and complete doing. We must pass beyond knowing what to do, to doing what we know. In a wide and important sense imagination might be said to cover the whole field of imagery. If we

consider for a moment, it will occur to us that every step we take in consciousness beyond the immediate insistent sense impression of the present fleeting moment, is due to our power of imaging. Without this picturing power we should be trammelled within such narrow limits that we would neither recall any past nor anticipate any future. We should have neither history nor statesmanship. The recall of the past is usually termed memory, but it is a part of the imaging process, though we usually identify the imagination more fully with the forward look into the unknown future. It deals with things hoped for. This imaging power that enables us to escape from the bonds of the insistent present is a liberating power. Indeed, at first it seemed chiefly linked with caprice. Fancy, the first expression of this liberating freedom-seeking activity, is apt to be quite capricious. Its watchword would seem to be, "I don't have to." Furthermore, the untrammelled fancy is inclined to playfulness, because it is inherently spontaneous. This spontaneous playfulness is the most precious thing in childhood. It is the tap root of all future growth. We cannot have a playful child if we have a sickly child. It is health, vigor and superabundant energy that bubbles over into play. Play is not merely an index of health and a result of health, it is also a giver and preserver of health. That is why play is called re-creation. Fancy is the mental side of bodily play. Fancy is mental playfulness. The Kindergarteners have always had the courage to specialize in their appreciation of the spontaneity, joyfulness and playfulness of the child life. The teacher of the Kindergarten is an earnest, hard-working, serious person actually making a business of encouraging and fostering play. But someone has said we do not play because we are young, but we are young because we play. Here we have found Ponce de Leon's fountain of youth. Nevertheless the meaning of the earlier fanciful stage of playfulness is to prepare us for work and all the serious business of life. We need to grow out of the irregular, erratic fancies and grow into the regular, regulated, orderly imagination. But if play is lost when work is found, we have made a dreadful blunder. We need to retain the spontaneity and joyfulness of play throughout even our most serious work. We should be able to find joy and satisfaction in all our work, and retain that spontaneity without which work is degraded into drudgery and learning into toilsome pedantry. The key to the development from the erratic,



crude fanciful into the nobler, higher imaginative, is through the discovery of interests in worthy objects. In projecting into our unattained future some worthy goal for all our strivings, and becoming so engrossed in the effort to attain and secure this ideal that we count not the cost. That is to live indeed! All our world benefactors and heroes have been so impelled. The greatest hero and benefactor that ever came to this earth of ours claimed that He came that others might have life and have it more abundantly.

Let us now consider how the imagination may assist us in the realms of science and art, morality and religion. I have already suggested how it should enable us to transmute ordinary labor and toil by giving it a meaning, a purpose and an inspiration. Of course, it is quite obvious that art and imagination go together. The imagination is indeed to grasp the beautiful. This artistic and beautiful satisfies a craving in our nature, and we all naturally desire not merely to see beauty, but to produce something orderly, harmonious, beautiful. To surround the child with beautiful objects is an environment helpful towards its appreciation of the artistic, but the really artistic nature cannot be largely developed by mere receptivity, it must become creative. It is as the child begins to make order out of disorder as he builds his block house, that he makes most progress toward art, and I seriously question if our modern elaborately constructed toys do not sometimes actually stunt the growth of the child by taking away the need of effort to get the result required. We cannot repeat too often, for we are always forgetting it, that learning is doing, and doing is learning more fully. Here I must admit that the Kindergartners have kept this in mind more faithfully than some others have done. It is quite remarkable, when you come to think of it, that it is at the beginning and at the end of our educational system that this principle of originality, independence, self-expression is most insisted on. When we take up the work for the Ph.D. degree, the first requisite that is insisted on is that the work done by the student must show originality and independence. It is strange that this is so often forgotten in the intervening stages of the educational courses. In reality it is the permanent, ubiquitous, indispensable principle not only of all education, but of all life. Each person should live his own life. No one was ever born to be a copy of anyone else, however fine the original. The Church has quite properly repudiated with scorn the shallow

doctrine that our Lord and Master was intended to be merely a model, a pattern, an example. He came to be an inspiration and a life, not a mere model for imitation in any external fashion.

If we turn to science, and this is the age of science, we must first of all note that all science is based on calculation and mathematics and experiment. You cannot make even the simplest experiment without first planning out the problem to be solved. To do this we must employ the scientific hypothesis; that is, we must use a highly developed imaginative construction. And if we turn to examine mathematics at the basis of all exact science, what do we find? We find that this source of all accuracy and exactness is nevertheless based on the creative imagination. Take the mathematician's definition of the mathematical point to start with. We could scarcely start with anything smaller, "without size and magnitude." Did you ever handle or touch such a point, or see it even with the help of the microscope? Yet by the help of the imagination we understand perfectly what is intended. Consider next the familiar atoms of science. Who ever saw, felt or handled these? They have never yet appeared to mortal eye, and are like the new health food constituents that we nowadays have to be fed up on, called "calories."

When the teachers of morality and religion admit their dependence on the imagination, scoffers often try to discredit them. "Let visionaries deal with the imaginary." I am therefore anxious that you should once for all realize that mathematics and science are also utterly impossible without the creative constructive imagination. Newton's law of gravitation was never tasted, touched or handled, however true and important it may be. It is the imagined that is the true. Look at the sun rising and setting, as you seem to perceive. It requires considerable imagination to realize that it is really the earth that is moving towards the sun, yet we believe this to be the truth. It must be frankly admitted that imagination enters into and is essential for morality and religion, and as morality is the simpler less adequate, religion the more developed more adequate, it will turn out that the imagination is needed for morality, but still more is it needed for religion. For morality, let us note for a moment how essential sympathy is for the life of moral service and for all the higher developments of moral dedication to the fuller, better life of the human spirit. But how can we sympathize with

others in any significant, deep, moral sense, unless we are able to represent to ourselves just how matters are in the experience of the one we sympathize with and desire to help? The merely instinctive infectious weeping of the child who weeps because his mother weeps, and knows not why, must be developed by imagination so that the sorrows and troubles of others may be understood and acted upon in appropriate acts of mercy and relief.

It was no accident at all that when the horrible devastating attack on Belgium was made by the Germans, the quickest to hear the call for succor were our best educated, brightest youths. They quickly realized by their well-trained minds, by their trained imaginations, just what it all meant, and they were prompt to act while duller people, many of them even now near the end of the third year of the war, scarcely begin to realize the situation. If science perverted has been discredited by the war, true education has been abundantly vindicated. Those narrow materialistic misconceptions about power and domination would not have taken such a deadly hold on the misguided people of Germany had they not lost their vision of the higher ideals of life, more intangible, but more real.

Though imagination enters deeply and greatly into the truly moral life, still more profoundly does it permeate the religious consciousness. How shall we comprehend what God, complete goodness, the completely good Person, means? The great All Father pitying our feeble powers, used Kindergarten methods. He sent His Son as a little child, as a youth, as a mature man, so that we might be enabled to realize something of what God and goodness means.

#### RECAPITULATION AND SUGGESTION.

1. The beginning of the mental life is in fancy, and we all must pass through the gateway of the fanciful, mingled with the fantastic towards more secure footing in more exact knowledge.

2. Even the simplest sensitive experience that materialistic writers try to explain as mere copy and impression of some external object mechanically acting on the human organism, is in reality always and in every instance a constructed ingredient in a freely, spontaneously, creatively active spiritual experience, and fancy would seem best suited as a term to describe this incipient active

intelligent working with all its spontaniety and apparent capriciousness. The watchword of fancy is freedom. Everyone realizes that this is a mere beginning in mental growth. It would be a tragedy if there were to be an arrested development at this stage; but what I desire you to realize is that though it is not a good stopping-place, it is a good starting-place.

2. In this original chaotic multiplicity of experience changing like a kaleidoscope, and passing so easily from smiles to tears there is a vital, growing element that is seeking order amid the disorder, and even its play is a seeking of order, a rule of the game. The charm of any game consists in the fact that one set of simple rules have to be immediately adapted and applied to the changing exigencies of meeting the opposing moves of the other side in the game. It also gives a clue to that curious hankering after repetition in the story-telling game. Although the story is made up, and the story-teller knows that it is only a story, and the listeners know that it is only a story, yet the story-teller having once told a story, must beware of taking undue liberties with it in the repetition. Here we have the germ of literary honesty and scientific accuracy. This is really the goal sought by the spontaneously playful fancy; there is an earnest factor, a desire for results, and this is the guiding principle of all memory, viz., accuracy.

3. But though memory is one of the first results of the fancy it is not a stopping-place, but a starting-place, for further acquisitions, and for rearrangements and corrections as we go on to more explicit knowledge of facts that are stubborn, and try to listen to the strange tales that have been told by old mother earth, and that we must not tamper with but correctly report.

4. Thus do we go on to build up exact knowledge and the various sciences, ever improving our methods of seeking and finding and proving.

5. At the same time we have a similar process and progress in the ordering of the emotional life, in gaining self-control, in securing habits of decision and in getting more definite conceptions of worthy purposes and noble ideals, that tend to dominate a well-formed character. In all these directions, as the original fancy becomes more definite, it passes over into the more orderly creative constructive imagination, and here we secure integrations or systems or



sciences in knowledge, and creeds and laws and convictions and character in conduct.

6. This, too, is a good starting-place, not a good stopping-place. Specialization is one of the outcomes of this stage, and it is hard to exaggerate its tremendous importance. In contrast with the earlier, fanciful, chaotic multiplicity and heterogeneous disorderliness or confusion, this specialization seems the consummation. But is it? Not at all. We need to push forward to still higher integrations. We need to see our various sciences, various beliefs and various strivings harmoniously co-ordinated. Here it is where the higher spontaneity and creative organizing power that we have called the productive constructive imagination is most needed.

This points us forward to ideals of order and beauty, of system and science and truth, and of co-operated endeavors in conduct evermore tending towards the adequately organized goodness of a really moral life, of the individual and of society. Beyond all these and including all these, we should have a vision and longing for a communion with the Father of all spirits, the source of all our dreams of beauty, all our proofs of truth, all our discoveries in science, all our aspirations for a higher life, all our longings for a brotherhood of man—all pointing to, all springing from, all consummated in the Fatherhood of God.

#### CONCLUSIONS.

We may roughly represent three or four great stages in normal human development.

1. First, we have primitive spontaneity in fancy that is, in the beginning, chaotic, but soon gropes for order.

2. We gradually pass from erratic fancies to ordered imagination, and thus build up industry and art, science and literature, morality and religion.

3. Our danger.—We are always tempted to lose the original creative spontaneity. Thus we make science mechanical, industry laborious, morality pharisaical, religion formal—all of them becoming thus decadent, dying or dead.

4. Instead of this calamity that threatens us all, we need to cultivate earnestly, by the help of the constructive imagination, those higher ideals that lure us onward and upward, that keep us

growing and developing, as we faithfully follow where they lead. Thus may we enter more fully and more joyfully into the higher life of the spirit, and learn to see the glory of labor, the beauty of art, the truth of science, the value of morality and service, the worthiness and enduring satisfaction of religion, and be enabled to appropriate that which taxes all our powers to imagine, all our efforts to realize, more and more, the goodness and the glory of the Father of all spirits, "Our Father." Thus may we become convinced that what we have imagined as Divine is by no means merely imaginary, but most real. That those marvellous words of our elder brother, leader and Saviour, "Our Father," are not too good to be true, but too true not to be good.

"And some among you held, that if the King  
Had seen the sight he would have sworn the vow;  
Not easily, seeing that the King must guard  
That which he rules and is but as the hind  
To whom a space of land is given to plow,  
Who may not wander from the allotted field  
Before his work be done; but, being done,  
Let visions of the night or of the day  
Come, as they will; and many a time they come,  
Until this earth he walks on seems not earth,  
This light that strikes his eyeball is not light,  
This air that smites his forehead is not air,  
But vision—yea, his very hand and foot—  
In moments when he feels he cannot die,  
And knows himself no vision to himself,  
Nor the high God a vision, nor that One  
Who rose again."

## OCCUPATIONS.

MISS M. MACINTYRE.

In opening this discussion on "Occupation" work, as we are kindergartners, it is not necessary for us to go into the value of the Occupation work. But rather to consider the trend of our Occupation work, to see if we are keeping pace with modern development; to question whether, in our desire to be up-to-date, we do not sometimes seize a superficial phase and drop the substance.

In an analysis of educational methods of Kindergarten and Grade teachers, made in the States a few years ago, the Kindergartners were rated high, in certain things.

In the development of initiative, in this fact, that their appeal to the interests of the child's life supplied a *motive*, which made him work eagerly with his whole heart.

It might well be that kindergartners' methods should receive such recognition, for these are two things which Froebel emphasizes with untiring insistence. How he has reiterated again and again the necessity of appealing to the native interests of children. How well he provided, through his materials and games, for the appeal to these interests! When we think of what elementary education meant in Froebel's time, nothing but memory work, Latin taught at six years of age; when we think of what it meant to work out a system of concrete experiences, using a play method, yet involving definite educational values, we realize that Froebel was an educational genius in his day.

We are sometimes criticized for using a vocabulary which is said to be peculiar to ourselves. If we do it is unwise, where it can be avoided. Although every study and every branch of education has its own terms, which are familiar only to those who study it. Every science and every art has its own technical terms. Why exclude the Kindergarten? But let us not get into a rut and use terms mechanically; and, by all means, let us broaden our vocabulary, and, whenever possible, translate Froebels' terms into those in use in modern education. It puts new meaning into our Froebelian terms, and is therefore of benefit to us and makes our work more easily understood by others.

We have heard so much of late years about developing the efficiency of a pupil, developing the initiative. But what is initiative but that alert quality of mind, that seizes the situation, ready for an emergency—the power to carry out your own plans; to organize, to take responsibility? Does not this result in efficiency? Is not this what Froebel means by self-activity? What is self-activity if it is not the power to express your own ideas, to think and act for yourself? Now the occupations can give much of this training, if we give the children *scope*, through the use of this material. It is so naturally attractive it lends itself to make-believe play in such a variety of forms. It satisfies his loss of beauty. Yet the occupations can be made absolutely mechanical.

The teacher must look at the occupations from two points of view. She is anxious for his growth; she wants to give him something helpful. She looks at the Occupations from her standpoint as a teacher. She says to herself, How can I present these Occupations so as to help him gain greater mental grasp, greater power to express himself, etc.?

Now there is another standpoint. How does the child view the Occupations? As *material*, what possibilities do they hold for *him*, from *his own standpoint*? Why does he like to work or play with them?

Now, unless we hold firmly to *both* aspects, we will inevitably fail to secure the best results in growth of powers. We must secure our results, working through his interests, his *motives*. No matter how carefully we plan our work from the standpoint of what we wish the child to gain, we will not gain any valuable results unless we adapt it to those things which are actually of interest to his life. It must appeal to him in some definite way. Think of the *zest* he puts into his play. A child comes in, flops down, and gasps, "Oh, we have had such fun!"

A jolly little negro, playing by the road, was asked, "How old are you?"

"Well, if you goes by what mammy says, I'se six; but if you goes by the fun I'se had, I'se mos 'a hundred."

Now, I think the play element can be brought into an Occupation much more than is often done. This make-believe element is so strong that a suggestion enables him to weave his own romances



with whatever he works. We should have some definite object to be accomplished that is desirable from *his* standpoint.

One child makes a tree of plasticine, with bird's nest and eggs, and bird on the branch. He begs you to be very careful as you move it to the centre of the table because there are eggs in the nest. But to another child the practical side appeals more. He loves to construct something definite, which he can use—something with which he can play.

Take this folding, for instance. A sequence of symmetrical designs may be converted into a series of different picture-frames, for the doll's house or their own bedroom, pictures pasted in, and strings put on. This sequence can be evolved just as carefully. The child gets all the value from our standpoint and all the enthusiasm from his point of view.

Children enjoy the weaving so much more if the mats woven are made up into something he can carry home. A book-marker for father, a napkin ring, a carpet for the doll's house, a hair receiver for mother, baskets, booklets, trays, etc. If we use our ingenuity there are an endless variety of things into which our mats can be made very simply. We have found it stimulates the interest in weaving wonderfully to feel there is a definite result—not simply a mat woven to put away, but something made that can be used in play or otherwise. The children are so interested in the Red Cross just now, and are so pleased when they can make over the army material that I showed them a pattern made up of red crosses. It was a great delight, and one little girl asked to make another. I said yes, but questioned why. She said she wanted to send it to a cousin at the front she knew would like it.

In beginning the weaving we have found the use of half a linen mat very effective. It is so much easier to work with than the large mats for little fingers. So in Cutting and Construction work, have the work in relation to the child's life. That does not mean, you will not regard a logical process of development. Sequence, artistic form, free expression must all have their place, but they must be gained through the *play interest* of the child at this period.

From this 16 square basis the children can get innumerable forms, simple, with a definite process, yet capable of a great variety

of arrangements, which appeal to him as the old Froebelian cutting did not. What was valuable in the old Froebelian cutting, that is, the process of development, variety of arrangement of the same elements, can be gained through the symmetrical designs, in tablets, just as well. School sewing and folding give other opportunities for it. The Illustrative Cutting gives a training in the use of the scissors, in neatness, accuracy and cleanliness, and the Constructive work gives a good mental training, as it gives opportunity for thought in the construction and transformation.

Free Cutting we have used with our very little children, when they were first gaining control of the scissors. Unhampered by the lines, they move quickly, gained power to cut, and their symbolic imagination transformed very crude results into all sorts of animals and desirable objects. I would like to hear from some Kindergartners who have carried this into higher classes.

In School Sewing the work can be adapted in the same way. It is a rainy day; the children in a class in School Sewing are combining slanting lines. Would not a border of umbrellas be more interesting than a border of arrow-heads?

You say, what if it isn't a rainy day? Make colored sunshades or some other suitable thing.

Again, another class has been for a first spring walk around the grounds, and has discovered the crocuses in bloom. Why not sew a border of crocuses, even if it does not fall in with the sequence? It will be of great interest and help to impress this flower on the mind, giving him a point of departure for decorative art, with Nature materials.

Triangles can be transformed into Christmas trees, etc. The children will suggest for themselves. This is not to take the place of School Sewing processes, nor symmetrical designing. They have their place. In symmetrical designing care must be taken that at first things are very simple, small cards. These, with much repetition, are the natural results. Then, as they grow in power and consciousness of possibilities, give larger cards and encourage variety of design. Then you have to beware of repetition. Lead them to see what can be done. Their delight in a new design is intense. But never be betrayed into drawing a design for them. No Kindergartner can get through her course without knowing the

falsity of such work. If that is done, it cannot be ascribed to anything but laziness.

Story Work in Modelling and Coloring. I think there is a big field for work in the Kindergarten along this line, letting them illustrate freely favourite stories and nursery rhymes.

Little Boy Blue is a good illustration. Have children repeat the rhyme. Be sure that all objects mentioned are clear to the children—meadow, haystack, etc. Have the children close their eyes and tell you what they see. Tell your picture. Let them illustrate freely; great variety will be shown. Little Jack Horner, Old Mother Hubbard, and many others will suggest themselves for modelling. Any game or story may be used. It helps children to visualize. Care must be taken that forms are not *too minute*. Children have that tendency. Be satisfied with very crude results, if they tell the story as the child thinks it.

#### TENDENCIES OF MODERN WORK.

Enlarged material is established in all progressive centres, but we must be careful that it is not carried to extremes. Very large forms are quite as difficult for five-year-old children to control as the old fine work.

In Cutting, some of the designs published in the magazines are so large that children cannot hold them. The big pieces are awkward. They cannot stretch the hand across and hold firmly enough to cut well. For that reason, also, we cut the large mats in two, with great advantage.

The union of the Kindergarten Review into the Kindergarten and First Grade has its advantages and its disadvantages. It certainly helps us to appreciate the close relationship between the two, and to plan our work to lead up to that grade; but we must be careful that we distinguish between work to be done in the Kindergarten and in the First Grade. So often work that is suggested for Kindergarten and Grade work is far too difficult for five-year-olds. A sequence of paper cutting that was suggested not long ago was quite difficult enough for children nine and ten, instead of five and six.

We must decide what our children are capable of doing *intelligently*, and not allow ourselves to be led by attractive-looking novelties into requiring of children work that is beyond their power to accomplish independently.

*THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE PHASES OF  
HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE AND THE PROPORTION  
OF TIME EACH SHOULD RECEIVE.*

MISS NINA A. EWING, NORMAL SCHOOL, TORONTO.

If one should ask a little girl who is arrayed in white apron and cap the reason for her wearing such a uniform in school, the reply would probably be, "We have cooking to-day." In studying the time-table, however, which portrays the day's routine of work, one would not find "Cooking" mentioned. Was the child wrong? Yes and no. She was wrong in that, to be technically correct, she should have designated the work about which she was speaking as Household Science; but she was right in that the lesson to be taught her during the period set apart for this subject would most probably be cooking. To the general public, the terms Household Science and Cooking are synonymous. Our pupils limit the subject to that one phase because it is the phase they learn and see emphasized; the public gets its idea from the pupils, and from the fact that a Household Science room is always equipped as a kitchen. Even we, who are qualified to teach the subject, because we have given it special time and consideration, do not always appreciate what it includes, though we are filled with indignation when called "Cooking teachers."

What are the phases of Household Science? They are as far-reaching as all the interests of the home, as extensive as the necessities of the individuals making up the home; they are as broad as life—much too varied for us to enumerate. Such being the case, and it also being a necessity for us to get down to a practical basis, let us limit the subject and change it from the "Phases of Household Science" to the "*Phases of Household Science Which We Can Teach.*"

The name itself suggests what we should teach. The science of the house and all that it holds, i.e., the home and its occupants. Whatever may be related to either of these is a phase of Household Science. A brief glimpse at the outstanding facts of each of these main thoughts will suggest what these phases may be. In connection with the first main thought, the house, the primary consideration is



the site. This includes choice of locality, elevation, environment and soil. The next necessity is a plan for the home, involving a knowledge of architecture and building materials. The plan will also necessitate ideas of sanitation, which are dependent on the ventilating, lighting, heating, and plumbing systems installed. When completed, the house is ready to be furnished from kitchen to attic. The furniture should be chosen from standpoints of utility, form, color, durability and care. Then when all is placed, the daily use will entail the cleaning, which requires a knowledge of cleansing utensils, agents and methods.

The house will now be ready for the occupants or family for which it was prepared. But their arrival at once brings new responsibilities. The foremost one is the consideration of food, with all that it includes, namely, the production, marketing, storing, food-value, preparation and serving of it. Clothing will also be necessary, placing on the home-maker the responsibility of a foreknowledge of fabrics and needlework. The mind must be considered as well as the body, and an intelligent choice of church, school, amusements, books, and periodicals must be made to assist in this. The foregoing necessities are for a family in health; but in every household accidents and sickness are apt to occur, and to meet these the simple principles of first aid and home-nursing must be understood by the person in charge.

In brief, these, then, are the considerations or phases which our subject suggests, and of which we have to decide the relative importance. Broadly speaking, they are as follows: In connection with the *house*, (1) house-planning, (2) house-furnishing, (3) home sanitation, (4) cleaning in the home; in connection with the occupants or family, (1) questions of food, (2) clothing, (3) culture, (4) care in sickness. How do these range in value in relation to the well-being and development of the individuals whom we are training to make efficient home-makers and citizens?

Of the two main thoughts, all will agree that the occupants are of more importance than the house, and that in connection with them ideas affecting their health stand pre-eminent. For this reason I should place the question of *food* first, with its dependent thoughts graded as follows: 1, food value; 2, preparation (including cooking and serving); 3, production, marketing and care.

With the thought of health still in view, I should place the

phase of sanitation second, and this would necessarily take in certain ideas of cleaning. It would include questions of ventilation, lighting, heating and plumbing, the sanitary care of the house and surroundings, comprising disinfection in sickness.

Next in importance I should place the question of *clothing*, involving a knowledge of the source and manufacture of our *fabrics* and the sewing necessary to make them into garments and house-furnishings. The question of house-planning would come next, because the arrangement of rooms and placing of conveniences so vitally affect the time and energy of the people who are to use them, and the sun exposure and arrangements for ventilating and lighting so vitally affect their health.

House-furnishing, with the study of the sources and manufacture of materials required, would come last.

Let it be understood that although this, in my mind, is the grading as to importance of these phases of Household Science, it is not the order in which they should be taught, since some of them are too advanced for the children of the lower grades. For example, the last one, the study of the sources of materials used in house-furnishings, may be followed by the youngest pupils, those of the Third Form, while the questions of food, which I have put first in importance, could not be appreciated by them. Throughout the Public School course, the phases to be chosen are those which are most useful and necessary to the neighborhood and homes from which the children come. If the teacher has in mind a bird's-eye view of the training the subject *should* give, she can work towards it, and often in one lesson planned specially for one phase of the subject, she can incidentally teach ideas of several others. During the entire course concurrent with all lessons much physical, mental and moral training goes on as unconscious undercurrent.

In the Public School we have now three years in which to teach our subject, with one lesson a week of one and one-half hours' duration. In the Third Form one year, in the Junior Fourth Form one year, and in the Senior Fourth Form one year. How shall we apportion this time to the main phases which the subject presents? It is a difficult matter to decide, and one for which no hard and fast rules can be laid down.

I think, however, we are all agreed on one basis: That good

habits of muscular control can best be formed during the growth period, and that these habits are quite as important for the mental development as for the physical. Hence since the Public School years are all those of growth, the household occupations should proceed throughout the classes. These occupations are mainly sewing, cleaning and cookery, graded to suit the ages of the pupils and taught in Form III. for their mechanical value only.

The study of the sources and preparation of household materials should also be taken during the entire course, as occasion requires their use: First, the ordinary foods and cleansing agents which the children are handling, and later the materials used in house-building and furnishing as the planning and furnishing of the home is studied.

While the first year is filled only with simple mechanical operations, which progress into more difficult ones in the two later years, in the second year the pupils should begin to think also of the value of the materials they are handling. They should be given simple ideas of the value of each well-known food and this knowledge applied to the planning of simple meals; they should also know the reason for the use of certain cleansing agents. Simple ideas of sanitation should be taught and applied to their daily living and any part of the house-work at home which they may be able to manage, such as the airing of beds and night-clothing and the ventilation of their sleeping-rooms.

In the last year, while the household occupations continue, all of these should be carried out from standpoints of reason and judgment, and scientific ideas which are not dependent on too advanced knowledge should be explained. These will occur in such operations as the making of flour mixtures and the canning of fruit.

House planning and furnishing may begin in the first year, starting with the kitchen, and gradually in the other two years covering the main rooms of the house in a very broad way.

During the last year one or two lessons in home nursing may be given to apply to the care of the sick the knowledge already gained.

Graded needlework should continue throughout the course.

Since Household Science is so closely connected with every other subject on the school curriculum, it would be of immense advantage to the advancement of our classes and to the gaining of

time if the teachers of the other subjects would correlate their teaching with ideas of the home. It would not only be a gain to our work, but to their own work, and this would be shown in the additional appreciation and interest of their classes.

The above thoughts, to which I have directed your attention, are merely suggestive, and are to be used as a basis for discussion. Further ideas will now be presented by the two speakers who are to open the discussion.

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*SOLVING THE HIGH COST OF LIVING.*

MRS. A. E. FAIRLIE, TEACHER, HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE, HAMILTON.

Since the inception of the Great War the term Efficiency and the part it must play in this life and death struggle has colored our whole outlook on life. What is Efficiency? Someone has defined it as the power to produce the best results at the lowest possible expenditure of time, labor and material. If this definition is correct, Economy or Thrift is the by-product of Efficiency, and we have found the key to the problem of the high cost of living.

The Mistress of the 20th Century Household must realize that she is managing a business, and must prepare to adopt business methods. It may be impossible for everyone to have special training along academic lines, but it is possible for all to have the far more valuable training of experience. She must have efficient administration, efficient work, efficient rest. Efficiency is a habit. A habit is consecutive, not spasmodic. We must realize we have disordered economic conditions at present which must be dealt with successfully.

Preparatory to solving the High Cost of Living, I should first advise a theoretical budget, apportioning the income to the various departments of living—food, clothing, etc. Keep itemized accounts and check budget monthly. There may be a shifting of values from one department to another, but it will at least regulate expenditure and point out the column for retrenchment.

The *first* requirement in regulating the high cost of living is the realization that *extravagance* is a sin, rendered doubly so by our duty in the present crisis, and that *economy* should not be a hardship. We must learn to deny ourselves pleasures and desires. In England the restrictions are compulsory; here, if undertaken voluntarily, they would be a wholesome corrective for many evils. This terrible time of trial should have taught us a proper appreciation of values.

Curtail all unnecessary expenditure. Live more simply. Dress more simply. Novelties in either food, dress or furnishings are not for persons of average income. They are usually expensive and ephemeral, and therefore extravagant.

Next to planning the budget and curtailing the style of living, I

would place efficient spending of income. The efficient housekeeper should study the markets and the fluctuations in prices as assiduously as the speculator. The purpose of taking food is to satisfy the cravings of hunger, to provide for the requirements of the body, and to gratify the legitimate sensations of the palate, therefore any saving in cost of food is economy, providing the food is of a kind suitable for nourishment, sufficient in quantity and attractive enough to be eaten with relish. Grocers declare that the demand of packages instead of in bulk, and the cost of delivery, has increased the last three years, has increased almost one-third; that housekeepers ordering once a day are in the minority, and that six orders in a day to one household are frequent. This gives a clue to the cause of the present prices, and the present state of affairs can only be remedied by mutual co-operations between dealer and consumer.

The careful housekeeper should personally supervise her own marketing and shopping, using the telephone order system as seldom as possible. This makes for variety, economy and good service. If a good many more Mrs. Buy-lows went to market they would have a better knowledge of food prices and food rotation. Buying in packages increases the housekeeper's expenses 50 per cent. She gains  $7\frac{1}{2}$  pounds on every dollar's worth of oatmeal by buying in bulk, a gain of 100 per cent. on cream of wheat, while she can obtain 2 pounds of rice for the 15 cents she pays for a package of puffed rice, and the food value is not increased by puffing.

Paying cash is another aid to economy. Look carefully to the ways of the household, and have as many foods as possible manufactured at home. Home-made bread, cookies, jams, pickles and canned goods are cleaner, better, more economical, and free from adulterants, and one has the advantage of the by-products of their manufacture.

The third thing to consider in solving the high cost of living is the Preparation of Food, which comprises Food Combination and Cooking. There are three principal nutritive elements in food. Carbohydrates, fats and proteids. On these three depend the heat and body-building material. Hutchison gives the proportion for an average man doing light labor, at one part protein to about four and two parts carbohydrate and fats. By a little study of food constituents, an intelligent woman should be able to strike a good balance. The disposition nowadays is to think of food in terms of

calories. Someone says, "Eating is a pleasure, nourishment a bore." Study the personal inclinations of the family, and guide their tastes in the right direction. Avoid the cast-iron menu. Have variety of food, variety of preparation. Cook and season with care, and serve attractively. This is one of the greatest helps to economy. Flavorless foods fail to satisfy, while on the other hand the cheaper and not less nutritious foods satisfy the appetite. Sometimes a cheap ingredient may be substituted for an expensive one, and if carefully made, neither food-value nor attractiveness is lost. Professor Harcourt places oatmeal first on his list of comparative values, yet in many homes it is displaced by shredded wheat biscuit, corn flakes, etc.—more than twice the price, with one-third the food value. This is largely due to poor cooking. Balance the menus first as to food values; second, as to attractiveness. In the first place see that there is not an undue supply of any food principle; in the second place, balance a heavy course with a lighter, and *vice versa*.

#### ECONOMY OF MEAT.

Every housekeeper should have a knowledge of how to judge meat, and to recognize the different cuts. Eighty per cent. of the animal is composed of the cheaper but not less nutritious cuts. These need long, slow cooking, and may be prepared in a variety of ways. Vegetables and maccaroni cooked in stews, dumplings, meat-pies, puddings, bread crumbs, and cooked rice, etc., are incorporated with meat; savory dressings and gravies make meat go further. The French "*pot a feu*," literally "pot on the fire," with its savory messes made out of bits we throw away, follows the *poilu* to the firing-line, and if our returned soldiers introduce the pot on the fire to the Canadian kitchen, it will be an advantage. A soup course is a meat saver, and if a stock pot is kept it can be furnished with little additional expense. Proper cooking of meat, cooking at low temperature and not cooking too much, and skilful carving economizes meat. Every meat "left over" should be utilized and made into savoury dishes. Meatless days should be inaugurated and meat substitutes used. Fish and eggs will also reduce the meat bills.

#### EGG ECONOMY.

Get eggs, if possible, from the farmer, and pack in the early autumn, when prices are not so high. In winter use heavier puddings, that can be made without eggs. Make eggless cakes and

cookies. Substitute plain and fancy bread rolls, muffins, scones, hot biscuit, all of which can be made at home, for cakes. You will save sugar, also; make your own cream of tartar baking powder; and use more baking powder and less eggs. In making cakes for an institution, where they are eaten fresh daily, make the flour the standard; add baking powder, salt, rub in fat, add eggs beaten with milk to make it the proper consistency. Study consistencies and make your recipe fit your material. If care is taken in mixing and baking, excellent results are obtained.

#### MILK ECONOMY.

Do not stint milk. Milk at 10 cents a quart is a cheap food. Utilize every drop of milk. Skimmed milk may be used for milk and batter pudding, biscuits, cakes, etc. Buttermilk, sour milk may be used in the same way, except for milk puddings. In using sour milk for biscuit, use half as much soda as baking powder in the milk, and sift baking powder with the flour. Use Klim, which is powdered skim milk, for baking. Always cook milk in double boiler to avoid scorching.

#### ECONOMY OF BREAD.

Have bread made at home, and do not cut until next day. Keep in a tightly covered tin box. Use judgment in cutting, and save cut pieces for toasting; or if wrapped in oiled paper, it may be used again. Do not waste a scrap of bread. Stale bread or bread crumbs may be used in a variety of ways. In puddings, fondus, meat balls, pancakes, dressings, as croutons and bread sticks for soups, for egging and bread-crumbing for bread sauce and many other ways. Stale toast may be brushed with butter, crisped in the oven and eaten with soups. Stale cake may be used in trifles, puddings, etc.

#### ECONOMY OF FAT.

Fat is very expensive now, and there should not be carelessness in regard to it. Save the dripping from meat, the fat from the top of soup stock, or the water in which meat is boiled. Some may be simply strained, others need clarifying. Ham and bacon fat can be used as lard. Beef fat may be used with lard for frying, or used for sauteing, and it makes good ginger-snaps, mixed with softer fat. Sausage fat and chicken or turkey fat are delicious for bread crumb dressings, or for ginger or spice cakes, or for sauteing, where



the flavor does not offend. Lamb and mutton fat are excellent with lard for frying. All fat not used for cooking should be tried out in a clean pail, and used for soap. Use vegetable fats, household shortening, Easy First, etc. Make less pastry.

#### ECONOMY OF VEGETABLES.

The great value of fresh vegetables lies in the mineral salts they contain, a liberal supply of which is necessary to health. Have a garden if possible. Home-grown vegetables are better than those plucked some time. They can be secured at a moment's notice, and help to cut the weekly meat bill. Vegetables, as a rule, are very badly cooked—over-cooked or under-cooked. The valuable constituents are soluble in water, and unless the water is boiled down and used for soups or stew, these are lost. Take potatoes at their present price. It has been computed that the average loss in cooking pared potaces is 1 pound in 5. Yet how many housekeepers boil them or bake them in their jackets. Left-over vegetables may be used in various ways, with vegetable water in soups, mixed with meat for meat balls, escalloped, alone or together in salads. Parts of vegetables too dry for use alone may be cooked with meat in a covered pan in the oven, or grated and used in soups. Vegetables should be canned in the autumn, and root vegetables used in the winter, thus lessening the grocery bill.

#### FRUIT ECONOMY.

Home-grown fruit is best when it can be obtained. Fruits are at their best when ripe and in season. Use them lavishly then. It is better for dessert in summer than pies or puddings. See your fruit before purchasing. Pick over larger fruits, and keep in a cool place. Turn small fruit on a platter and keep in a cool place. When fresh fruit is scarce, economize by making conserve with oranges, raisins, etc., rhubarb, apple and crabapple mix well with other fruits for jam or jellies. Make rhubarb and orange marmalades when in season. Use less sugar in canning, or put down without sugar. Utilize wild fruits, elderberries, raspberries, strawberries, when possible. A supply of winter apples kept in a cool place, dried fruits of different kinds, honey, syrup, etc., help out the canned fruit, and make it last until the arrival of the fresh fruit.

## ECONOMY OF LIGHT AND FUEL.

Light and fuel bills absorb a large portion of the income, and should be economized. Turn off the light in your room when you leave it. Turn off all but the hall light when you leave the house. Turn off gas in stoves when not in use. Sift coal ashes and burn wastes in the furnace. Apples and potatoes may be baked, and other cooking done in the furnace. If a coal stove goes all night, bake beans, cook tough meat, or dried fruit in the oven. Plan to do several kinds of baking when the oven is heated, or if coal or wood is used when baking, have some slow cooking done on the top of the stove. Look after the draughts carefully in the stoves and furnace. Use the fireless cooker when practicable.

To sum up Learn the Economy of the Kitchen. "Enough of everything and not too much of anything." Small left-overs make a large aggregate of cost in the month. Outside the food question: Have laundry, sewing, etc., done at home as much as possible; have clothing, shoes, utensils, etc., repaired at once. Take proper care of everything, thus prolonging the life of clothes and furniture. Economize in doctor's and dentist's bills by having good wholesome food and taking care of the health.

Let the male members of the household do their share by accepting the reduced style of living with becoming philosophy and cutting down the 101 small extravagances of which they are scarcely conscious. Thus, having efficiency and economy as the governing principles of the household, let every member of the family co-operate with but one end in view—a vehement desire to "do his bit" in helping to win this war, and the solving of the High Cost of Living will be practically assured, and will incidentally create stronger and more independent characters to take up the burdens of the future.

*SUBSTITUTES FOR MEAT.*

PROFESSOR R. HARCOURT, ONTARIO AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, GUELPH.

*(An Abstract.)*

Meats are a valuable but expensive part of our diet. Valuable because of their flavor and general condimental effect, but mainly for the store of highly digestible nutrients they contain, and expensive because they furnish only reformed constituents which were first built up by the plants that formed the food of the animal. We perhaps cannot get any substitutes that will entirely replace the condimental effect of meats, but we can substitute other materials that will furnish more protein and heat units for a given amount of money. At present prices a dollar spent on rolled oats will furnish about four times as much protein or flesh-forming material, as the same amount of money spent on sirloin steak and good spring wheat flour; skimmed milk and buttermilk will supply nearly five times as much protein as the steak. At 8 cents a quart, milk furnishes protein at about half, and beans at 10 cents a pound at one-third of the cost in steak.

Comparing the value of the foods on the basis of their ability to produce heat and energy in the body, 11 cents spent on oatmeal, 12 cents on flour, 19 cents on bread, 24 cents on skimmed milk, 25 cents on beans, 35 cents on whole milk, and 50 cents cheese will reproduce as much energy as one dollar's worth of sirloin steak.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the fact that the cereal grains furnish our cheapest foods. That they are cheaper than meat is readily accounted for when it is pointed out that years of experiments have proven that it takes 4.5 pounds of mixed grains to produce one pound of live weight of hog, which means that it takes at least seven pounds of grain to produce one pound of edible pork material. The seven pounds of grain contains more than five times as much protein and will furnish over four times as many calories of heat as the meat produced from it. The protein, fat, carbohydrates and ash are all formed in the plant. The animal cannot construct these, only transform them into animal tissue, heat and energy, and as a result only about 20 per cent. of the original material is recovered as food. In the present time of food shortage it is clear why we should seek to retain as much as possible of the grains for human consumption. It also makes clear why the British Government demand that their millers furnish 81 pounds of flour for every 100 pounds of wheat ground, thus securing 11 per cent. more material for human food than under the old system of milling.

*THE DAILY DIET.*

MISS A. L. LAIRD, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE,  
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

This is a very broad subject and one that may be considered from many standpoints. We will limit our discussion of it to some phases of the problem as related to our elementary school children.

The daily diet of our school children is of vital concern if our country is to prosper. If we are to have a strong, efficient race we must see to it that our children are well nourished. Both the mind and the body are undergoing fairly rapid development during the school age, and malnutrition at this time often tells on the whole after life. In appearing before a Royal Commission in England, Hutchison gave it as his opinion that the most critical time—after passing infancy—as far as nutrition was concerned, was the school period between ten and fifteen years of age.

Just after the Boer War, England's eyes, as a nation, were opened to the great importance of efficiently feeding growing children. When, in 1902, Major General Maurice announced that only two out of every five men who applied for admission to the British army were "physically fit," England was naturally greatly exercised, and it was said quite freely in the United States that England was facing the problem of national deterioration—that the end of her supremacy had begun, and that she was repeating the history of Rome. As a result of this startling condition of affairs, the British Parliament appointed a Royal Commission to inquire into the physical training in the schools, and to try to discover why the men were physically unfit. After examining very carefully and very thoroughly into the cause of this physical unfitness, the conclusions reached were that there were at least three factors that affected the vitality of the nation—housing, occupation, and feeding, the most important one being the feeding. They examined the physical training from the universities down to the elementary schools, and found it all right, but found many children, on account of malnutrition, not able to profit by it, and in some cases they found that while the physical training was good in itself, it was doing



actual harm. Further commissions were appointed. The voluntary work being done in the feeding of school children was studied and found inadequate to meet the need, and as a result of all these investigations the "Provision of Meals Act" was passed by the British Parliament in December, 1906. This Act provided that school authorities might appropriate money for school lunches, and it applied to England and Wales. Scotland has her own school feeding law. It is worth while to note that this was the first bit of legislation growing out of the alarm regarding the physical deterioration of the people. Other legislation followed.

The problem that faces one is not to relieve "acute hunger," but to relieve "chronic malnutrition." This school feeding is only touching the fringes of things, and it by no means insures proper feeding for the children it reaches, but that it has proved a help is shown by the action of the London County Council at the outbreak of war in August, 1914. The elementary schools of London had closed Friday, July 31st, for holidays to September 24th. The following day Germany declared war; on August 4th England declared war on Germany, and on Thursday, August 6th, the London papers announced that the schools would reopen Monday, August 10th, and quite definitely stated that if there was to be war, the feeding of the children must be looked to, and the only way to do it was to bring them back to school.

When one picks up the daily paper here, one is struck by the large percentage of our men who offer themselves who are rejected as physically unfit, and if we accept England's finding as the cause, the most important factor for this extremely serious condition of affairs is "bad feeding."

This "bad feeding" not only affects the physical well-being, but the mental and moral as well. Insufficient or over-nutrition has as much to do with breakdown at school as overstudy has. Clearness of the brain to study depends on proper nourishment, and, no doubt, the so-called stupidity or backwardness of many children in the public schools is simply the result of neglect and underfeeding. If malnutrition during the growing period means a handicap for the rest of life, surely it follows that it is of vital importance to any nation that its growing children be well fed. The daily dietary of our school children is one of the big problems.

Let us consider the causes of malnutrition. Generally speaking, they may be classified under three headings—ignorance and thriftlessness, poverty, criminal neglect. No doubt some cases of malnutrition are due to criminal neglect, and many are due to poverty, but many, many more are because of ignorance and thriftlessness. Ignorance is undoubtedly the main cause. Investigators have found malnutrition especially marked among school children; that the people understood more about feeding the younger children, and in many cases children going to school were left to shift for themselves.

As a result of ignorance or poverty, we may have insufficient food, and this no doubt is the cause of much malnutrition; but unsuitable food is probably responsible for many more cases.

In many of the poorest homes the diet is mainly one of bread and tea and highly seasoned canned goods. In many homes, where poverty is not a cause, the mother will say, "The father is the principal bread-winner, and his strength must be maintained at all costs; he must be considered first," and the result is food that he likes is prepared and forms the children's diet; the food may be wholesome, but unsuitable for children.

Food may be unsuitable because of kind. It is very frequently lacking in cell-building elements. Again, it may be unsuitable because of improper or poor cooking. Badly cooked food is said to cause more disastrous results during youth than at any other period of life. Without good cooking, indigestion and constipation or diarrhoea results, and a vast amount of strength is wasted in the efforts of nature to overcome the difficulties placed upon her. Not only is there present discomfort and loss of power, but often organs are permanently injured. "A poor dinner well cooked is better than a good dinner indifferently cooked."

Another cause of malnutrition due to ignorance is irregular meals. It is said that in the homes of many work people the children never sit down at the table. They go and get a piece when they want it, and stand up or walk around while eating it. Regular meals, properly distributed over the twenty-four hours, are necessary. •

Again, malnutrition may, through ignorance, be due to want of sufficient sleep. Taking the results of the respiration calorimeter

experiments, a grown person requires, when in bed asleep,  $\frac{1}{2}$  calorie per pound per hour, and  $\frac{3}{4}$  calorie per pound per hour when awake and sitting up, but doing nothing while the amount increases rapidly when muscular work is done. The child's requirement is more per lb. of bodily weight, so that if the child stays up two or three hours longer than it should, the fuel requirement is considerably increased. It therefore follows that lack of sufficient sleep is especially bad for undernourished children. Then, too a child's nervous system requires rest and quiet. For instance, moving picture shows in the evening are not conducive to rest, or sleeping in a room with four or five others may be disturbing.

The lack of fresh air is another contributory cause. We need plenty of fresh air in order to make the best use of the food we eat—fresh air during the daytime and also at night.

Through ignorance of all these points and of sanitation we have malnutrition and various kinds of disease, and the question is what can we as Household Science teachers do to improve this condition of affairs?

If ignorance is the main cause—ignorance of the needs of the body, of food values, of how to prepare foods, etc.—it follows that if we are going to help matters permanently, we must educate the people, we must make an impression on the home, and raise the standard of living. Something toward this end can be done through the school.

In England they found that children had to be taught to like simple, wholesome food. For instance, in one special experiment in Bradford, forty of the most needy children were taken and given breakfasts and dinners. Only one child out of forty had ever eaten oatmeal, and that one was a Scotch child. The first day thirteen refused to try the oatmeal ;the second day all but two tried it; and from that on all enjoyed it, and were not pleased if porridge was not served. Similarly, in one of the London schools, when porridge was first introduced, they had great difficulty in getting the children to taste it; but after a little time it became very popular, and a lady made inquiries from a number of grocers in the neighborhood and found that their sales of oatmeal had greatly increased. The serving of oatmeal at the school breakfast had led to the introduction of this food into many homes. We should defi-

nately try to improve home feeding through our work in the schools. This I think should be a definite aim of cookery in the Public School, and it seems to me the work at present fails to accomplish what it should in this respect.

If cookery is to be taught for its value as handwork, why include it in the Public School curriculum? Other subjects that require less equipment would do just as well. If cookery is to be taught merely as a cultural subject, and for its mental training, why add another subject to an already overcrowded curriculum, and particularly at a time when the children are too immature to reason out the why and the wherefore? If the aim is merely to learn to cook a few odd dishes, it surely has no place on the Public School or any other curriculum. Such a method of teaching the subject encourages bad dietetic habits rather than good ones. As I said before, the English Commission appointed to inquire into the causes of physical deterioration found in some schools the physical training, while good in itself, did positive harm on account of the condition of the children, and we should face the fact that it is possible to teach cookery as the making of dishes and do harm rather than good by teaching things that may be all right in themselves, but entirely out of place as far as the children in the schools are concerned. To me there is only one end that justifies the introduction of cookery into our Public Schools, and that is the definite aim to increase the efficiency of the child, and, through the child, the nation. If it is made, as Mrs. Richards used to say, the "fourth R"—Right Living—then it has a reason to be; but if not, its place is not in the Public School, but in the High School, where the girl is more mature and can understand the subject matter better. This phase of the work is introduced in our Public Schools mainly because such a large per cent. of our children never get to the High School, so that if the help is to be given, it must be in the Public School. We may help the child by teaching the preparation of foods suitable for growing children, and except in very rare cases, omitting dishes they are better without. The dishes taught should be simple and adapted to the financial conditions of the children's homes. The dishes should be taught as an integral part of a meal. It is the meal that is the important thing for these children; a logical study of foods can be better given in the High School.



Whenever possible, one should have the actual preparation of simple meals.

Another very important point is that the dishes taught should be repeated over and over until the children become proficient. One does not teach the multiplication tables by going over them once, and we do not expect a child to learn anything else by having one lesson on it; but apparently many Household Science teachers think this possible in cookery. They teach a lesson, say on bread, and consider that they have taught breadmaking. This is unwise from whatever point you view it. It is against all the principles of teaching, and makes the children restless. They are always wanting something new. Children will repeat the same or a similar dish over and over, if presented as a part of a meal.

The question of expense is important. It is a farce to attempt to teach practical foods if one has so little to spend that the children cannot get practice. On the other hand, we must remember that it is not encouraging thrift and may do harm to teach poor children something beyond the means of the family. For instance, eggs, even at 36 cents a dozen, come to 4 cents for a 100 calorie portion. This is quite beyond the reach of poor people, and the dishes taught should be suitable with respect to the financial condition of the homes of the children. I grant that there is a minimum, and an ever-increasing minimum, necessary for efficient feeding, but there is also the wise spending of what one has, and the Household Science teacher should estimate what is a fair amount for the average family, in her school section, to be spending on raw food materials, and govern her choice of dishes accordingly. The children should be taught to buy wisely; and to make the fullest possible use of what is bought—the care of food materials, the use of left-overs, etc., must not be neglected.

Having noted the importance of the daily diet, and of the teacher keeping this end in view, let us briefly consider the foods suitable for school children and especially for the period from eight to twelve years of age.

Milk is one of the best foods for children of all ages. A factory inspector in England, after careful and continued measurements of factory children between the ages of thirteen and sixteen, found that those who had milk for breakfast and supper grew four times as

much as those who used tea or coffee. Without milk, the diet is likely to be lacking in lime and other body-building material, and also may be lacking in certain substances needed for growth—growth vitamins. One and a half pints of milk a day can be continued until the full physical growth is reached. The milk may be taken as a beverage, on cereals, in milk soups, in simple desserts as rice and other farinaceous puddings with milk, custards, simple ice creams such as milk sherbet or custard ice cream. Ice cream made from thick cream is too rich for children.

Cereals should form a part of the daily diet. Thoroughly cooked porridge, made from the whole grain, such as rolled oats or rolled wheat, provides needed mineral matter and cellulose. Ready-to-eat cereals should be used only very occasionally. In an experiment in Sheffield, England, they took three groups of children from the same school. The first group came from better homes and were not given school breakfasts, but were weighed regularly. The average gain per child per week for these children having all their meals at home was 2.09 ounces. The second and third groups were children from poorer homes, and they were provided with breakfasts at school. The children in the second group were not given porridge, and their average gain per week was only 1.58 ounces, while the third group, whose homes were similar to those in the second group, were given porridge, and their average gain was 3.31 ounces a week—a considerable gain over the children who came from better homes.

Bread should be served as stale bread or crisp toast, and the child taught to masticate it thoroughly. Fresh or hot breads do not belong in the child's diet, and even after twelve years of age it is advisable to use them sparingly. Crusty rolls and small cornmeal or Graham muffins (small to increase the proportion of crust) are the best forms of hot breads. It is considered advisable to omit griddle cakes, waffles and tea biscuit until the child is at least fourteen years of age.

Fresh fruits and vegetables are very important. Without them the diet may be lacking in base-forming elements, in mineral ingredients and in cellulose. Any mild, raw or cooked fruit may be used, but it is wise to avoid very acid fruit or to use it sparingly. The vegetable should be thoroughly cooked in such a manner as to avoid the loss of important constituents, and should be served in a simple manner; rich sauces should be avoided.

If plenty of milk is used in the diet there is no need for a large amount of flesh food, and there are serious objections to a too liberal amount. A very small serving is sufficient, and the meat should be simply prepared. Rich meats, as pork and dried meats, should be avoided. Eggs cooked in a simple manner—never fried—are an important food, and should be used when possible. Unfortunately, their price is frequently prohibitive.

The most desirable desserts are bread and cereal puddings, blanc manges, junkets, custards and occasionally ice cream. It is better to omit pastry. When pastry is used, the baking of the crust is very important. Experiments indicate that the thorough baking of the crust makes considerable difference in the ease of digestion. A thoroughly baked, one-crust pie is to be preferred.

Cake in the form of plain or gingerbread cookies, sponge cake, and plain cake, may be included, but rich cake has no place in a child's diet.

Sweets should be taken at the end of a meal and not between meals.

Fats, such as butter and thin cream, are very valuable, and it is advisable to serve them as simple fats rather than to use them in cooking. That is, use the butter on bread or vegetables and the cream on cereals or desserts. Tried-out bacon fat, if not overheated, makes a good fat to spread on bread or to use with baked potato. However, while fats are important foods, foods fried in fat should be omitted from a child's diet.

Condiments such as pepper, and stimulants as tea and coffee, are not needed, and have no place in such a diet.

The following is a suggestive food plan for a child from eight to twelve years of age, the daily fuel requirement being from 1,700 to 2,400 calories:

#### *Breakfast.*

	Calories.
Fruit, fresh, stewed or baked.....	50—100
Porridge.....	100—150
Dry toast or stale bread.....	75—150
Butter or other fat.....	50—100
Milk to drink and on porridge.....	150—250
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	450—750

#### *Dinner.*

Flesh food or substitute, as egg.....	50—100
Potatoes or substitute, as rice, steamed banana, etc.....	75—100
Green vegetables.....	10—50
Bread.....	75—200

	Calories
Butter or other fat.....	50—150
Dessert.....	150—200
Milk to drink or as soup.....	100—200
	<hr/>
	650--1000

*Supper.*

Cereal as rice, cream of wheat, etc., or cream soup, or other suitable dish .....	200—300
Bread .....	75—200
Butter or other fat.....	50—150
Dessert or stewed fruit, with or without cake.....	150—200
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	500—850

The estimated fuel value gives one approximately the minimum and maximum portions to be served.

Similar food plans may be worked out for children of different ages, the portions served being calculated to accord with the following table of requirements.

Age	Calories from Protein required (per lb. of body weight.)	Total Calories required (per lb. of body weight.)
5 years .....	3—4 calories.....	35—37 calories
6 years .....	4 calories.....	34—36 calories
7 years .....	4 calories.....	32—35 calories
8 and 9 years.....	4 calories.....	30—35 calories
10 and 11 years.....	4 calories.....	28—32 calories
12 and 13 years.....	3 calories.....	25—30 calories
14—17 years .....	3 calories.....	20—25 calories



## MANUAL ART SECTION.

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### *INDUSTRIAL ART.*

JOHN GRAHAM, TORONTO CENTRAL TECHNICAL SCHOOL.

My subject is "Art from the Point of View of a Craftsman." The title, as printed, reads, "Industrial Art." I let it go at that, so that I might call attention to a custom that does a great deal of harm. I mean the custom of splitting art up into different sections. We have "Fine Art," "Industrial Art," "Applied Art," "Commercial Art," and I don't know how many more. The public mind is hazy enough in its ideas concerning all art matters, and those unnecessary classifications do not help to make the public mind any less foggy.

There is only one kind of art, "Good Art." The only distinction between one kind of art and another, that I have ever seen recorded, and that I could understand, I saw in one of the textbooks published by an American Correspondence School. On one page was shown a fairly good drawing of a human hand. It was called "Hand for use in Serious Art." On the opposite page was a bad drawing of the same hand. This was inscribed "Hand for use in Comic Art."

This subject is one around which there rages at all times a storm of conflicting opinions, especially concerning the way in which it should be taught.

Quite a large number of tangled opinions concerning the methods used for the teaching of Art in the Public Schools, that are at present flying hither and thither, would find a common resting place, by an agreement to put the word "Drawing" in place of the word "Art." It is far too commonly supposed that the teaching of drawing and painting is teaching "Art." To realize that this is *not* so, will clear up that, and a number of other misconceptions, regarding the subject.

There are scores of people who can draw and paint very well

yet are utterly lacking in the artistic faculty. All children can be taught to draw much more easily than they can be taught to write. Writing is really drawing, but it is the drawing of forms that, in themselves, have no meaning, nor interest, for the children. How much more readily they would take to the drawing of the shapes of things they knew well.

All children *should* be taught to draw at the same time as they are taught to write, but it should be quite understood that, because a child develops a faculty for drawing, it is not necessarily a heaven-sent artistic genius, any more than an aptitude on the part of the child for forming letters and words indicates an embryo poet or author.

There are scores of people with strong artistic feeling who cannot either draw or paint. Drawing and Painting are not the only means of artistic expressions, yet when we speak of an Artist, we immediately picture to ourselves someone drawing, painting or modelling.

And we also picture to ourselves a man with his head in the clouds, a poor unpractical dreamer who hasn't got enough sense to put up his umbrella when it rains, who knows nothing of business, is unmethodical, unorthodox, untidy, and un-everything else. If he is simple-minded, we cheat him first and pity him afterwards. We have been, on the whole, so tolerant of his foibles that he has come to take himself seriously, and now he has turned the tables on us by not only expecting tolerance but demanding homage—but I am anticipating.

If you will bear with me for a few moments, I would like to give you a little Art History. I can assure you it will not be a bit like school history. The History of Art is not a deadly dull record of kings, queens, battles, and dates, written by men hundreds of years after the events, and made up mostly of surmises. Art History is the record of races, unconsciously written by themselves, and until we burn all our School Histories and teach the History of Art instead, our children must continue, to a large extent, ignorant of the true story of those who have gone before them.

In the early days, the days that produced the works of art, that we now use as models for our pupils, artists were trained in workshops, not in studios or schools. They were apprenticed to masters,

in whose shops they were taught the practice of their art, and from whom, in daily association and assistance, they gathered the theory that governed that practice. Those masters were architects, sculptors, silversmiths, woodworkers, plasterworkers, were, in fact, masters of Art in all materials. The result was that their apprentices gained an extensive knowledge of all the Arts that lend themselves to artistic expression, and gained that knowledge in a thorough manner. One apprentice might take more readily to painting, one to sculpture, one to silverwork, and so on, but no matter what branch the apprentice favored, his working knowledge of the others was the secret of his power in the one of his choice.

This custom gave us the great workers, and the great works of the 13th, 14th and 15th centuries. The great mass of painting done at this time was done for the decoration of specific places, but later, in the 16th century, we find the art workers tending more and more towards specializing in one branch of art only. Now, a modern would naturally conclude that such a course would tend to the improvement of art. That that, to which a man devotes his whole time must necessarily be better done than work which he only takes up intermittently. Well! That might be true concerning, say, the mixing of mortar (although I am not sure that it would be even then), but it is certainly not true concerning Art, and as certainly as this change from the old method took place, we find a gradual deterioration in the quality of work done. Doubtless political and social influences led to the change. Works of art were executed, so that, in restless and unstable social conditions, they might be easily removed to a place of safety. Whatever the cause, or causes, the change narrowed the work of the artists into the expressing of what thoughts they had on small isolated canvases, that were subject only to the criticism and limited by the taste, of the wealthy patrons for whom the artists worked.

The criticism and the appreciation of the *whole people* to which the earlier masters were subject, and which kept their ideals up to a very high standard, gave place to a condition where the artist's only care was centred on pleasing the whims of an individual. The time of the Louis' in France was marked by a culmination of this decadence into the vulgarities of the Rococo. The same decadence came in Britain in the 17th and 18th centuries. There was some hope of bettermen at the end of the 17th century, but the German

Georges came in, who, as one of their number said, did not care for "Boetry nor Bainting." The fashion on the part of the people, of following the taste, or lack of taste, of the court, became very prevalent, and the coarse affectations which characterized the royal surroundings of that day may still be seen in a few of their many palaces. The canker of industrialism also came in, binding art and all other gracious influences in its grip. In a land where wealth accumulates and men decay, Art cannot live, and it sank to a very low ebb indeed in early and mid-Victorian times. Then came the prophet John Ruskin, and to him we owe whatever sanity we have in our artistic tendencies now.

By the change that took place, Art was divorced from the actualities of life, and relegated to the mean position of luxury. Our knowledge of what Art should be, and what we see it actually is, leads us into all sorts of confused notions concerning it. The artist to-day is what we have made him. A man, removed from the rough and tumble of every-day life, a delicate plant, shivering at the touch of such mundane things as concern his fellow-men. In the world, but not of it. Standing aloof from all civic affairs, all national affairs, lest their crudeness spoil the dainty sensitiveness of his soul, and possibly nip in the bud some great thought struggling for expression. We have fed this vanity, this pose, by our indifference to all Art matters ourselves. The artist has enveloped himself in a halo of nebulous mystery, and we have looked on the halo as sacred. We are now suffering for our credulity.

What have we got in return for this blind faith of ours in the sanctity of the ultra-artist? Surely out of all our worship and national grants there should come some tangible results. The only visible evidence that anything accrues from our expenditure of money and faith, is an annual exhibition of pictures, resplendent in gold frames, which exhibition is open for a few weeks only. If we assume that all the pictures at an exhibition are good (which is a fairly generous assumption), what man among us is prepared to say that he gets anything like a lasting impression from any picture after a few hours' observation of it. Looking at pictures in an exhibition is a ridiculous waste of time, as all pictures compete with one another in color and theme, and if they didn't, a crowded room is hardly the place to induce a contemplative frame of mind, which condition is the only one in which to *study* pictures, or anything else.



The most disappointing result of our endeavors to, as the newspapers put it, "propagate a love of Art among the people," is that our present system defeats its object in a serious and unfair way. All the people join in the monetary sacrifice for Art, yet only a very small number of the people can afford to avail themselves of whatever benefit there might come from the possession of pictures; they can only become the property of the very wealthy.

But the saddest result of this decadence of Art is that the artist has removed himself from the ranks of the people. He is now one of the aristocracy. With this removal has been acquired the habit of despising the ordinary workman. The only craft that is considered "good form" is the craft of painting, and that craft only when it is practised on canvas, and not too large a canvas. If the craft is practised on walls or on a very large canvas, an "ordinary workman" is called in to the preparatory work, else the artist loses caste. Art began to deteriorate when the artist ceased being a workman. It has become decadent now because the artist despises the workman.

I have purposely dwelt on this phase of present-day conditions because I look on that attitude as the most pernicious that all art workers, and especially art teachers, have to fight. Most of what is written and a good deal of what is spoken about Art, is written and spoken from this ultra-academic point of view. But in recent years I have never encountered a worse instance of this attitude in action, than within the pages of the "Manual of Art" given to the public school teachers, from which they are to dole out "Art" to the unfortunate children who are to be the next generation of workers. I have no idea who the compilers are. I think it is the duty of every ratepayer, when he sees public money spent uselessly or dangerously, to publicly call attention to the fact. I think this book is unfit for its purpose, and I beg to call the attention of all those who are interested in education to the fact. It is the second text-book issued by the Department of Education that I have read. The first was a book on "Manners." I am bound to say that the books fit one another. The pupils who have digested the "Manners" of the one, are the only ones fit to receive the "Art" of the other. It bristles with ideas concerning Art, that will cost the Board of Education a good deal of money in teachers' time before they can be removed from the minds of the unfortunate children who absorb them. In speaking

to a teacher of Mathematics the other day, the conversation turned, as it will do sometimes, on Art. "Oh," said he, "don't talk to me about Art. When I was eleven years of age I was asked to illustrate the quotation, 'The Swan on still St. Mary's Lake, floats doubly, swan and shadow,' and because I couldn't do it, I was plucked, and lost a year of my life. I don't want to hear anything about Art." He was joking about his indifference to the subject, but the incident was true. If that subject were set to the professional artists of the country, I doubt if 100% marks would be gained by more than two or three contestants.

It is little wonder that those who have the responsibility of our national or municipal affairs begin to have doubts about the wisdom of spending money on the "Propagation of Art Among the People," when the only activities that can be seen consist in afternoon teas and chatter, or banquets and highfalutin speeches about the "Moral Influences of a National Art." The danger lies in the doubts remaining in the state of doubts, and that no real interest will be shown. After all, to the great mass of the people, official as well as laymen, Art is a "frill" with no real influence on the moral, or spiritual, and less than none on the trade welfare of the country. As I have tried to show, the people may be excused if they hold this view. I will now try to show why they must hold this view no longer.

John Ruskin, the seer, came, lived, worked, and died, a broken and disappointed man, who is but now coming to his own. His message may be summed up in his own words, "Life without industry is Guilt. Industry without Art is Brutality."

His mantle fell on William Morris, who, in his own life, proved that true art can be combined with true trade, and both be successful. Morris passed on the torch to Walter Crane. Now he, too, has gone; but the work they all began is still carried on by little fraternities of fervent men who are yearly growing greater in numbers, and influence, and dignity of workmanship. The teaching of all those men was in direct opposition to the popular ideas concerning art, and those who follow in their footsteps are still having the same fight as they had; but, thanks to their great efforts, the struggle is daily becoming less hard.

The new thought is, just as usual, a retracing of our steps to the old and tried ideas that have given the world whatever of good

in Art, it possesses. It may be broadly outlined as follows:—

When the Creator decreed that man should earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, He tempered the decree with the gift of Art, that, though man's work should be hard, it might still be joyful. As long as a man is allowed to express himself in his daily work, he is happy. Take the joy out of work and misery follows. Bad social conditions have always coincided with decadence in Art. Where the workers have been oppressed by the despotism of courts, or the infinitely worse despotism of industrialism, the arts have languished. The cult of power as an end in itself, coarse material standards of trade, the sinking of the man in the machine, and the worship of an "efficiency" that destroys the souls as well as the bodies of men, are all enemies to artistic development. Art cannot breathe the same atmosphere as materialism. All the laws of Art are in direct opposition to modern commercialism. Therefore every effort to develop true artistic principles strikes at the sordid meannesses of the materialist, and blazes a way towards happier and more useful lives for all the people. Such is, broadly, the creed of the forward minds in Art to-day, and their motto might well be "*Labor omnia vincit*," for they aim at making the artist take off his velvet coat and don his overalls, get himself imbued with a little of the spirit of Michael Angelo (who, like all true artists, would rather do things himself than be bothered with assistants), close up his studio, with its deep pile carpet, downy chesterfield, and chintz curtains, open a workshop and hang up a sign which tells the world what, of useful work, he can do with his hands, as well as his head, that both are governed by his heart, *therefore*, he will do good work, whether he live or die. The artist of the coming time will not sneer at trade. He will himself be a good tradesman; that is, he will trade fairly. He will *not* be a good "business man" in the modern sense. All his dealings will be on the same basis as his Art (that is, based on Truth). If he has to touch modern business methods at all, he will touch them with an extremely long pole, charged with disinfectant. He will be a thoroughly practical man. He will, during his training, have tried his hand at all the crafts, but will have made himself master of one. By that craft he will earn his livelihood, and know for the first time what the joy of creation is. The man who has not made with his own hand some useful and beautiful thing, even though he may have passed through a dozen universities, is still an

uneducated man. He is still unconscious of what dignity there is in labor. He does not yet know what happiness is; and no matter how he may prate about Art, it is still a closed book to him.

Quite hopeful progress towards making good craftsmen of artists has been made in the older countries, but what has been done has been entirely without help from the Official Art Departments; in fact, it has been done in many cases despite their opposition. Small groups of craftsmen have banded themselves together into guilds, and have executed work that has set a standard, unattainable by the ordinary commercial company. Those guilds are run on the motto of the Companions of St. George, "Do Good Work if You Live or Die."

In one or two cases, where guilds deteriorated into commercial concerns, they promptly died, but the greatest benefits arising from their formation is that they provide admirable training grounds for students, who eventually break away into good individual practice, or group together into guilds in new places. Something of that kind should be our ideal. Let our Art instruction culminate in the production of an efficient craftsman, so that in expressing himself in his craft he may do some tangible good to his country. We may then hope to get back to something like sanity in the design and construction of our homes and public buildings. There is just as much room for artistic expression in woodwork, plaster work, metal work, leather work, steel work, or concrete, as there is on square yards of canvas. The man who says that he is limited by his material hasn't grasped any glimmering of the meaning of Art. Let us handle those materials in a big way, a workmanlike way, not in the tentative, tinkering way indulged in by the young ladies of both sexes at present.

That the work of such craftsmen is needed, only those who have had to hunt for them know. Hitherto we have been satisfied with the manufactured products of the large commercial concerns.

We are now finding out, what the reading of Art history could have told us any time, that no good work is ever done except for the joy of doing it, and there is no joy in making things for profit instead of for use. The hall-mark of a work of Art is that it contains part of the soul of the artist. That is sentiment, and we know (and if we didn't, the business man soon tells us) that there is no



sentiment in business. That is the reason there is no soul in factory work. When any of us want furniture we find that we can get miles and miles of it from the great factories, but it is all the kind without soul. When we want that (and sooner or later we do, unless we take root), we find that it has to be brought from the same place from which most of ourselves have come. Britain is still the source of all the best things; but Britain, in the coming time, is not going to have enough to serve her own needs, and we, her sons, having proved that we have inherited her grit, can surely show that we are not deficient in foresight, by getting ready our armies of peace as we have our armies of war.

We are very anxious to be sufficient to ourselves. We have put the "Made in Canada" mark on our goods, but that mark on bad goods is a poor advertisement, and our goods are bound to be bad unless we train our men. If we want to start an industry of any kind, the first, or one of the first, things we have to do is to find the art director for the firm. He will be in charge either of the making of the products or advertising them. Where are we going to get the man? We must remember that our home-made products must compete with those of other countries, and they all will have trained craftsmen. Hitherto we have looked to the older countries of Europe to supply us with trained men. We need look there no longer, because they, for the next twenty years, will need all their own. The States have not nearly enough for their own market. They are stealing from us when they can.

There was a census taken a few years ago of the efficient artist craftsmen in the States. They numbered seven, and only one was native-born. I visited a large firm of furniture-makers in Edinburgh in 1914. They were then buying back every piece of their own make of furniture that they could get their hands on, because, as the head of the firm told me, they had now no craftsmen capable of turning out such work, and no more were being trained.

This scarcity of trained men is caused by the industrial system having driven them into factories in earlier days, thus killing the apprentice system. That system has gone, for the present at least, and it behooves us to make the schools take the place of the workshop.

One is often told that there is no demand in this country yet for good craftsmanship. This question usually comes from those

whose ideas of good artistic workmanship would be covered by the phrase "Fancy workmanship." Just as soon as there are men to do the work, the work will be there to their hand. In the whole course of my thirty years' experience of craft work I have never known an efficient craftsman who was not crowded out with work. Under present condition, what good work is to be had is in the giving of the architects, and no architect is going to recommend to his clients such work as he knows he cannot get executed.

And now comes the consideration of *how* we are to produce the craftsmen.

Our first care must be to rid our minds of the supposition that Art is an airy, unpractical thing. That idea, I find, is one of the stumbling-blocks which we will have most difficulty in removing. I was speaking some time ago to an audience, every member of which had had what is thought to be the best possible education. They were all university graduates. The President and a few of the others told me that they would welcome some enlightenment on Art, but being all practical people, they were afraid they didn't understand much about the subject. Burns said about University students that "They gang in stirks, an' come oot asses." He is generally supposed to have said it in envious haste. I think he might have repeated it in considered leisure. It is bad enough in our public schools to meet with this kind of thin thinking, but that our highest halls of learning should launch their students on a cold world with such primitive thoughts on vital matters is sad indeed.

One of the members of the Board of Education was credited the other day with a statement (I do not remember the exact words), but they were to the effect that pupils should be encouraged to do things with their hands, and be taught through the doing instead of being bound down to seats that were screwed to the floor. Now, I consider that one of the most sane and hopeful remarks concerning education that has been made for many a long day. I noticed that one of our fair and honest "hand-on-my-heart" impartial newspapers called the speaker a crank. Well! A wise man has said that a "crank" is a thing that makes revolutions, and revolutions are sometimes bad for newspapers.

The first step toward better education is not to put more energy into our present way of doing things, but to realize that our whole

attitude towards education has been wrong. We have directed the education of our children with the mean aim of worldly success. The whole system gives evidence of an indifference to the making of character, but pointed directly to the making of money. We have passed it into the hands of officialism, who have petrified it into the lifeless thing it is, with no elasticity, no life..

In the training of all subjects I would even go further than our friend, Dr. Noble. I would do away with classrooms altogether, and turn them all into workshops. I would teach the arts and sciences when the necessity arose for them in workshop practice. I would teach Arithmetic by the slide rule, Geometry by the division of spaces for decoration, Hydraulics by the installation of a water-heating and drainage system, Mathematics in the measuring of surfaces for building or surveying, Architecture in the actual building of Municipal buildings, and all the arts in their decoration, and I would employ no teacher who could not succeed in earning his living at the craft he taught.

Surely the need, the immediate need, for some sane system such as this must be obvious to our statesmen. The need is indeed imperative, for before anything can be done *teachers* must be trained. I know two children who came home from school last summer and said that the teacher told them all that when school started in the fall they would all get "Art," as she was going to take a summer course. I hope the craft teachers will *not* be the "summer course" kind. 'Twere better to bear the ills we have, than fly to others *that we know of*.

When we have made craftsmen of our artists will there be no pictures any more? Oh, yes! There will be, but not so many. What we lack in quantity we will make up in quality. Our artisists will be earning their living by their craft, and when the spirit moves them to express themselves on canvas, they will do so in their leisure time, and do it for the love of doing it. But quite a number of them will be picture painters by profession still, but they will have made a thorough study of architecture, a far closer study than the architects make. They will be great designers of ornamental forms, and great colorists. They will understand the proper use of all materials, and they will make them all subservient to the fine, thoughtful records of all the great lives and works of really great men and women, which they will execute on the walls, not of Governor's

houses, nor of banks, nor of board rooms, nor of stock exchanges, but of all the rooms of all the public schools, thereby implanting in the plastic minds of the children a love of form, color, country, history and nature.

One of the most immediate results of giving an art training to all our workmen, and a work training to all our art men would be the disappearance of graft. If we had spent half as much to develop the crafts as we now spend in probing the grafts, the evil would have died years ago. The art worker has no illusions about what is euphemistically called "shrewd business." He knows that it is simply mean cheating. If he had the kind of mind that tolerated cheating merely because it succeeded in evading the law, he couldn't be an artist. He knows that any fool who cares to make the necessary sacrifice can make money, so that he does not *worship* the wealthy man; he watches him.

Above all, the better training of the artist would help to remove one of the meanest thoughts that a man can have—the thought that labor is degrading. Those who think that this thought is not prevalent had better ask a few of the parents of what are called the well-to-do classes to send their sons to learn the crafts of the bricklayer, the plasterer, or the carpenter. If they press the carpenter suggestion on the plea that Christ worked as one, they will get the cut direct, as it is "bad form" to introduce religious matters in week-day conversations.

In conclusion, will you allow me to quote the words of William Morris? "What I have tried to do is to put before you a cause for which to strive. That cause is the democracy of Art, the ennobling of daily and common work, which will one day put Hope and Pleasure in the place of Fear and Pain, as the forces which move men to labor, and keep the world going."



## REFORMED SPELLING SECTION.

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### THE PROGRESS OF SPELLING REFORM DURING THE YEAR.

JOHN DEARNESS. M.A., VICE-PRINCIPAL, NORMAL SCHOOL, LONDON.

A writer in the *Kölnische Zeitung* attempted to prove to his fellow-countrymen that the German Empire would yet establish its superiority over the British in a future contest, if not in the present one. One of the grounds upon which he based this conviction is that, compared with the German youth, the British youth are handicapped by the waste of two years of school life on antiquated spelling and tables of weights and measures—two years which the Germans can devote to intrinsically valuable instruction. The British people were already awakening to the slackness of their schools in the matter of scientific education, and it was the force of this discovery that led the Government to appoint the Educational Reconstruction Committee.

The translation and publication of the *Zeitung's* article in the London *Daily Mail*, coming at a time when the British educational traditions and systems were under critical observation, turned attention to the spelling fetish of the schoolmaster. The Spelling Society lost no time in laying before the Reconstruction Committee a strong case for the improvement of English spelling. Under the active direction of such scholars as Viscount Bryce, Sir Frederick Pollock, Bishop Welldon, H. G. Wells, Prof. Gilbert Murray and others, a petition praying for the appointment of a Royal Commission to consider and report upon the subject had been signed by influential leaders of opinion in all parts of the Empire. It bore the names of one or more professors in all the universities of the British Islands; there were, for example, over twenty well-known names from Cambridge University. The overseas dominions were well represented. A list of more than a hundred influential names from Canada included the signatures of Chancellors Sir William Meredith and the late Sir Sandford Fleming, university

Presidents Murray and Braithwaite, Vice-Principals Watson of Queen's and Moyse of McGill, Supt. MacKay of Nova Scotia and ex-Premier Scott of Saskatchewan, Judge Chauveau and Dean Mathieu of Laval Law School, and many other professors, principals and teachers of Normal schools, colleges and high schools.

The weight of this petition was supported by a plea quoting the unanimous resolution of the Imperial Education Conference, that "the simplification of English spelling is a matter of urgent importance in all parts of the Empire," and Lord Bryce's declaration that such simplification would in a generation make English "the language of commerce all over the East, with enormous benefit to trade." It was also urged that a consistent, rational spelling would save at least a year in the education time of our children; that it would promote purer and more uniform pronunciation; and that it would greatly lessen the difficulty of teaching reading to defective English-speaking children as well as to our fellow-subjects of alien races.

There is also evidence of increasing desire to study the English language in nearly all foreign countries. Its commercial value, rich literature, and grammatical simplicity explain its popularity with language-teachers. This popularity would be greatly increased if the spelling were reformed to make it a help instead of the most serious hindrance to the acquisition of the language by foreigners.

The presentation of the Society's plea has, directly or indirectly, resulted in the action of the National Board of Education in sanctioning experiments with simplified spelling in various elementary schools.

The absorbing interest in the war naturally led most of the spelling-reformers to expect but little progress until its close; but contrary to expectations, and largely for the reasons already stated, there is greater readiness shown than formerly to consider proposals for reform. In 1916, the British Society enrolled more than twice as many new members as it did in 1915, and the secretary's books show a volume of fifty per cent. more inquiries. The British National Union of Teachers of the Deaf adopted a resolution strongly supporting simplification of spelling, and several of the branches of the National Union of Teachers have adopted similar resolutions. It

may be said then that the year 1916, insted of being a year of waiting, has been one of unusual progress in the matter of spelling reform.

The work in the United States has been carried on mostly in the colleges and press. In the U. S. Educational Directory there are 826 universities, colleges, and normal scools listed. Of these, 57 per cent. permit their students—a total number of over 327,000—to use simplified spellings. The increase during the year was from 265 to 453 institutions. In 1913, there wer only 22.

In the United States three years ago only 38 newspapers and periodicals wer recorded as using simplified spellings. At the annual meeting of the Board, on the 3rd inst., the secretary showed a list of 486 daily newspapers and periodicals, with a total circulation of 17,000,000, using simplified spellings. Numerous teachers' associations hav adopted resolutions in favor of simplified spelling, and two State Boards of Education favor its use in the scools of their respectiv States.

II. All things considered, the past year has shown more progress in the improvement of English spelling than any preceding year.

*THE LOST VALUES OF THE ALFABET, AND HOW TO  
RECOVER THEM.*

MRS. DORA C. FORSTER KERR.

The Alfabet is the greatest factor in progressiv civilization. To show truly what the alfabet has done for humankind in its progress towards civilization is beyond the power of a few simple words. To find a comparison for the boon that the alfabet has been to men, we must follow flights of Oriental imagination. It is the magic horse that could transport a man thousands of miles in a moment; it is the invisible cap by which we can be there without being seen; it is the power to see and hear at a distance. But it is more than the gift of some mighty magician or fabulously wealthy king to another. It is the gift of a people to all peoples. It is for all, not for a few, nor for a privileged caste to use and to conceal from the multitude. It is the symbol of the liberty, equality and fraternity of the early Christians' dreams, and the means whereby we shall attain these.

We received the alfabet from Greek hands, whence has come so very much of European culture. But it originated with an Asian people. We may well pause to ask what we hav ever done for Asia in return for this transcendent gift of a fonetic alfabet.

How hav we guarded this priceless treasure? We hav allowed it to fall half into ruins; and for centuries no voice of warning was lifted to preserv it.

We have been far more careless with our alfabet than other European peoples. Our standards as to accurate sound notation hav always been lower. Where we have more variations of sound than other peoples, we have no letter variations to denote them. Like the Dutch, we hav resorted to a makeshift of 2-letter notation for vowels, but we hav neglected to form intelligent uniform habits of using even this digraf makeshift.

For the 12 recognized vowel sounds in English we hav only 5 vowel letters.

For the ah-long sound, "the leader in all alfabets," heard in the word "father," we have no letter-mark to distinguish it from ah-short, unless the letter "u" set beside it, in some words having



the consonant "n," may be so considered, retained in the words *aunt* and *launch*. The association of ah-long letter with the "r" trill consonant, following it, usually implies this sound, as in the word *hard*, but it also shares this denotation with o-broad, as in the word *ward*. We have an unfortunate English eccentricity in naming the first letter of the alphabet "eh" and in using it for that sound.

Eh-long is denoted in six different ways, all commonly used. 1st, as in *eight, veil, neighbour*; 2nd, as in *late, wake, cave*; 3rd, as in *paid, laid*; 4th, as in the adjective *great*, and the noun *steak*; 5th, as in *they*; 6th, as in *day, stray*, and in the word *fête*, we borrow the usual representation of it in the Latin languages.

The one-stroke letter is the representative of "ee"-long in the languages of our neighbours. We use this notation in a good many words, *machine, police, caprice, mosquito, unique*, and others; but in our commonest words we have very conflicting representations of it,—by one monotype, and by five different diagraphs, or seven, if the words "key" and "people" are reckoned. The monotype for "ee"-long is seen in the words *he, we, cede*, and in several common prefixes, *pre-, de-, and* others; and the various diagraphs for "ee" are found in the words *feast, leap*, and about 40 of similar spelling; in the words *see, feel*, and some 40 others of common use; in the words *yield, priest*, and several others; and in *deceive* and a few others.

O-long is denoted by "o" in the words *no, post*, but takes a silent letter after it in the words *note, pose*; and the diagraphs used for o-long are, as in *coat, boast*, and a few similar uses; as in *own* and *crow*; and (very unreasonably) as in *foe* and a few other cases.

O-broad is variously denoted in a few score of common Anglo-Saxon words, its worst representatives being in *water* and *walk*, and in *caught* and *fought*.

The short vowels are the most numerously used, and the present usual forms of our five vowel letters should be retained for them, as all students agree. Our trouble with these is to get rid of the foolish diagraph makeshift which has been carelessly used to denote both long and short vowels in such words as *mead* and *meadow*; and in one very important word, the verb to *read*, it is impossible in script and print to indicate, by the orthodox spelling, the difference between "I read" (present tense) and "I red" (past tense).

The only short vowel which needs special attention is u-slurred, as in the words "but," crust" and many others, and in the very frequent prefix "un-". This sound, according to Dr. A. J. Ellis, was not used before the middle of the 17th century, and we may wish, but probably wish in vain, that English North-countrymen could restore to us the old full pronounciation of the fine vowel "u," insted of which our Lancashire men are copying Southern English now, and naturally sometimes go a little further, and pronounce "bull" like "bulge" and "cull." Before long, more of our u-sounds will be degraded into u-slurd, inevitably, unless our present infinitely muddled notation is reformd.

It is necessary to look at, and also to "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest" a synopsis of our vowel notation, so that we may feel the full shame of it as we ought to feel it.

#### OUR VOWEL NOTATION.

##### *Ah-long.*

ant, ark, launch, half, mast, staff, laugh, last, aunt.

##### *Ah-short.*

an, amity, stand, pat, lattice, alkali.

##### *Eh-long.*

age, hate, eight, they, take, great, care, yea, hey-dey, exclaim, hair.

##### *Eh-short.*

edge, yes, learn, friend, leopard, bread, read, heard, any, men.

##### *"ee"-long.*

ease, be, he, priest, seek, seize, cede, proceed, read, hear.

##### *"ee"-short.*

it, bit, build, Briton, forfeit, kin.

##### *O-long.*

oak, lo, soul, don't, obey, note, post, coal, foe.

##### *O-broad.*

awkward, for, all, broad, water, walk, nought, naughty, plausible.

##### *O-short.*

on, not, doll, was, wan, alter, often, quantity, troth.

##### *U-long.*

ooze, true, prove, lose, rule, moot, shoe, do, two, fool.

##### *U-short.*

put, wood, could, look, wool, sugar, full.

*U-slurd* (17th century "U"),

under, cub, dove, done, sprung.

*Difthong Sounds.*

au. ....owl, out, loud.

ai. ....aye, ride, kind.

iu. ....you, use, unity, few.

oi, oy...oil, joy, alloy, foil.

Our children get no benefit of a fonetic alfabet, as regards vowel sounds. Every word must be lernd separately as tho it were a Chinese ideograph. There is not a word in the English language that anyone, from hearing it pronounced, can spell, nor from seeing it printed can, with certainty, pronounce.

Vowels may be considered the most elementary and essential sounds of spoken languages, and language might perhaps, with careless peoples, slip back wholly into vowels, wer it not for the check of the visual language of print. The Londoner is apt to degrade the word "hill" into "yeo." And a conversation in Scotch vowels has been reported, which concerned the purchase of some woolen goods. "Oo?" queried the customer. "Aye, oo," was the reply. "A' oo?" prest the customer, who was then assured, "Aye, a' oo!"

Yet in visual language the consonant letters are the letters which give words their distinctive forms, their usually ascending and descending character providing a good outline, while the vowel shapes ar squat and rounded.

In changing and modifying the vowel letters, we do not disturb the familiar word-shapes in the same degree as in altering consonant letters. In fact, reform of vowel notation, while most needed, can also be accomplisht with least annoyance to the present generation or those of them who shrink from seeing changes. Tampering with consonants in print is irritating to many. True vowel notation will do away with the necessity of doubling consonant letters as we now do, in the attemt to indicate shortness of the preceding vowel, which is one of the difficulties of English spelling.

Moreover, the most antiquarian of language seolars can scarcely suppose that with our confused uses of vowel letters much "history" in the language would be wiped out," as the late Professor E. A.

Freeman feared. Professor Freeman's influence probably counted for something in keeping us self-satisfied and lazy, and ignorant of what a true fonetic alfabet means. He was in the line of Dr. Johnston, who so unfortunately stereotyped our muddled spelling. As the guest of a lively hostess he was aptly described as "a nice old bear." He was a great Old-English scolar, no doubt, but incapable of grasping a big, practical problem of reform.

With our vowel notation once rationalized, we shall be able to ask of our historical frends some gentle little questions about consonants. Whether, for instance, they might not be satisfied with reading about the gutturals which our ancestors sounded in the words "fought" and "thought," instead of recalling these gutturals every time they read or write these words; or whether they would prefer restoring the sound of them, as in the true Scotch pronunciation.

English spelling is a barrier placed at the gate of knowledge which prevents many from ever becoming truly literate. The precious school-time of all is wasted in memorizing this arbitrary and illogical spelling, and this memory work is actually made the test of education! A complete alfabet and the intelligent use of it, can be lernd in a few days, as was proved by the missionary, James Evans, who gave the Cree Indians an alfabet for their language which they wer able to use in a week, and some of them mastered in one day. A German has truly said of English scools: "The standard to be attained is set very low and the achievements ar tragic, thanks largely to the incredibly antiquated spelling and the complicated money-weights-and-measures tables." (1915: *Klonische Zeitung*.)

Why ar our university magnates content to see our alfabet half in ruins? I do not fully know; but I do confidently assert that their contentment could be shattered once for all if every trained and conscientious teacher would clamor for alfabet restoration. We must have a true alfabet to teach. Where there is a will there is a way—with professors. I do not commend the way of the great revolutionists who spoke the saddest word ever heard in a revolution: "We do not need learned men."

Our best hope lies in the teaching profession. A teachers' charter would insist upon true and progressiv reform of language



notation. Such a charter would demand the due recognition of the noblest of all professions by the granting of professional degrees. The M.A. degree is never equivalent to a teacher's training, and should never be so regarded. University powers should never pass into the hands of those who are ignorant of the psychology of teaching. To university ignorance of teaching is due the neglect of the foundations of learning.

But not teachers alone are responsible; all should love and cherish our language. We cannot safely leave the restoration of alfabet values to anyone who may come forward to do the work, whether professionally or as a hobby. We should watch and test such work as carefully as that of building a house in which we are to live. Millions of our children and of their children in every generation are to live and move and have their mental being in the English language. Every letter and every turn of every letter should be scanned. The attempt recently made (no doubt with good intentions) to thrust the diagram method of vowel notation upon the English language in perpetuity should be a warning to us. This 2-letter notation, so wasteful of time and space, is most faulty of all from the point of view of teachers' psychology. It would appear in many common Latin-derived words, at present free from it. The proposal of this makeshift cannot arouse the enthusiasm and spirit of self-sacrifice necessary in a great reform. Fortunately, this method is not at all favored west of the Atlantic.

The importance of recognizing continental values in letters is a weighty consideration, for we have suffered too much from Anglo-Saxon singularities. But the valuable work of the French foneticians must not blind us to the interests of English notation. We were warned in the Sweet article on Phonetics in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*: "It is well suited for French" . . . but it is "an attempt to make a special adaptation of the Romie basis to the needs of the French language into a general notation for all languages."

"The "Phonotype" alphabet of Sir Isaac Pitman is, I believe, the best basis we have to work from, giving slight, but distinct, modifications of our present letters to denote the sound modifications. Some changes of the Pitman letters may be needed, and some slight strokes may have to be thickened as more suitable for the typewriter. The letter for eh-long is excellent; it is a rounded form

of the capital E. Ah-long should have a rounded form of capital A, instead of Pitman's reversed "a," which is psychologically faulty. This will readily form into the two difthongal characters needed. For "ee"-long, a frank compromise between our *i* and *e* letters has been suggested, having most of the one-stroke letter of continental usage; it has a rounded hook top and a dot. There is a very good letter for o-broad, an "O" having a kind of kidney shape, shortened. The Pitman u-long is distinguished by a slight descending elongation of the second limb. A narrow form of the capital-U shape, as in several other proposed vowel lists, has been recommended for U-slurd.

Every exponent of a reform has some cherisht detail to dwell upon. I wish to be champion of the letter "Y," on which some spelling reformers seem inclined to lay violent hands and to divert from its present usual functions. This "consonantal-vowel" letter, as it has been called, begins or ends many familiar, and, I may say, beloved, English words: yes, yesterday, youth, you, they, lovely, funny, joy; and many other pleasant or characteristic English words. "Y" is harmless retained for optional use in beginning and ending words, as equivalent to "ee"-short, (i), for the present at least. Thus the continuity loved by scholars would be less broken, and our alphabetical books of reference less disturbd.

The necessary vowel changes, modifying letters, will not be painful, and we shall see little of them for several years, outside of the schools in which they are adopted for our children. This reform is advocated not as a pleasant pastime but as an imperative duty. The study of it is, however, most interesting.

A most important avenue of hope lies in the great need of India for Romanic letters.

The duty of providing a fonetic alfabet for optional use in the 147 languages of India cannot long be deferd; and what we can give away we can surely provide for ourselves. If we push this reform, the great duty of our Empire, we ar helping ourselves also. At the present time we are allowing one man, the Rev. J. Knowles, to work at this reform in loneliness and difficulties, without even funds necessary for printing, tho his experience and linguistic knowledge are most valuable to us for the work.

I believe the educationists of Canada are more alive to the great issues of education than others, and that they have a great deal in their power.

## LEAGUE OF EMPIRE SECTION

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### *GREECE AND ROUMANIA AND THE WAR.*

MAURICE HUTTON, PRINCIPAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

I left the diplomacy of Greece this time last year still wobbling and wavering between the Allies and the Germans, between Venizelos and the king. Much has happened since, but nothing that is very clear or decisive. For a long time the king had the upper hand. He has established a reputation among his countrymen as a heaven-sent general: as the best soldier of the royal houses of Europe. Venizelos himself is in part responsible for this, unwittingly; for he had found it convenient, in 1912 and 1913, to magnify the king's successful conduct of the two Balkan wars of 1912 and 1913, and now he cannot well eat his own words and depreciate the ability of the king he so exalted. It is the nemesis of diplomacy; that, for diplomatic reasons, the diplomatist often takes a line which, afterwards, he has every reason to regret. Southern Greece evidently takes the king very seriously and honestly believes that it is only safe under his guidance. The split between the king and his former premier has grown deeper and wider. All through 1916 the king's party was not only in control of all Greece up to Thessaly, but even threatened the Allies' hold on Saloniki: the French at Saloniki could not move north for fear of a Greek attack on Saloniki and their flank. The Allies then exerted pressure by their fleets on Athens and compelled the expulsion of the German and Austrian ambassadors: but the pressure was not entirely successful. On the 1st of December last, fighting occurred in the streets of Peiræus and Athens between French and British detachments on one side and Greek reservists on the other. The French and British lost several men and withdrew to their ships. Their allies, the Venizelists, in Athens, were very roughly handled and thrown into prison. The Greek Church—like other branches of the Church at various times in other countries, as in England of the Stuarts and as in France at all times—took the Royalist side almost unanimously. The Archbishop in Athens solemnly cursed Venizelos as an enemy

not only of monarchy but of the Church, and excommunicated the few Bishops who were on the liberal side. The allied fleet redoubled its pressure, extorted apologies and subjected Greece to a blockade. The blockade has caused great hardships and some change of heart. The reservists have been more or less disbanded, and, better than that, the Royalist army in Thessaly has been removed to the Morea, or Southern Greece; but the impression remains that the king is no more friendly, or even neutral, than he has been from the first: that he is only waiting for a chance to help his brother-in-law. The chance has not come, does not seem just now likely to come, and the king is once again more passive and the blockade, in consequence, has been removed or lightened. But there is no assurance against fresh Royalist movements except the power of the French fleet at Athens. Greece is engaged practically in a civil war. A small Venizelist army at Saloniki is co-operating with the Allies, but it represents only Venizelos and the Cretans and the Greek islanders—not the mainland Greeks. Meanwhile, Greece has lost her claims on the Allies and the sympathy of the Allies, and lost a good deal more. The city of Kavalla, with its rich hinterlands, which was seized by Greece in 1913, and which Venizelos was willing to cede, in 1915, to Bulgaria for a price, the price of a Bulgarian alliance with Greece and the Allies, but which the king refused to cede, has been captured by the Bulgarians, without any price—without any price, at any rate, which can be avowed and published by the king; and the Greek army corps which held it for Greece surrendered for the most part to Bulgaria, and was carried prisoners into Germany. Those who refused surrender escaped to the Venizelist army at Saloniki. Guns and munitions were captured with them: as an offset to which the Allies have secured the surrender to them of a certain number of Greek batteries or artillery from Corfu. The Italians also have encroached on the Greek districts of Epirus; and Greece has lost to Italy, on the north-west, no less than to Bulgaria on the north-east, and all on account of the fatal divisions in Greek policy and the civil war which distracts and divides her, and has reduced her to the lowest depths of humiliation and ignominy, and left her a Niobe among nations, “a holy show,” hopelessly divided against herself, as incapable of common effort in a common cause as she was in the worst days of her classical history: in the days of the Peloponnesian War, and throughout the fourth



century B.C., and without any of the compensations which those classical days of decadence witnessed; the flowering, I mean, of a literary genius, which seemed—as often it seems in the history of nations—to burn all the brighter for the political and practical decadence, amidst which it flourishes, and from which even—in the strange compensations of Nature—it seems to draw some of its force and heat. Civil war and political controversy have sometimes lighted fires of intellect such as are sufficient almost to outshine the material desolation, the fires of burning cities and ruined homes, which accompany civil war and political turmoil; but it has not been so with Greece since 1914. The picture is black, unrelieved.

I had occasion last year to speak of the indecisions and the waverings of Greek policy. Here is another State—Roumania—which will have seemed perhaps to you—up to August last—capable of giving Greeks many points and pointers at that game.

In August last the war had lasted twenty-four months, and during most of that time we had heard, at intervals of a few days or a few weeks, that Roumania was coming in: she was like the Colorado mines, which are always going to pay a dividend next month.

But possibly Roumania had more excuses for her indecision than has Greece. Why should she come in? Because this war, answers someone, is for the liberation of the world: is for general liberty: is for the liberty in particular of the smaller nationalities: is even for common humanity and respect for treaties and common decency and Christianity in the conduct of peace and war, in diplomacy, and on the field of battle, by land and sea. And these things especially concern small countries; the virtue of others is a luxury to the great nation: it is a necessity to the small.

The answer seems a good one to us: perhaps not quite so good to a Roumanian.

What is a Roumanian? Who is he?

The Roumans or Romans are the descendants of Roman soldiers quartered by the Emperor Trajan on the banks of the Danube in the beginning of the second century A.D., to guard the frontiers of the Roman Empire. Their province was called Dacia. It was surrendered after nearly 200 years, in 270 A.D., to the Barbarians;

and nothing is known of the history of the inhabitants of Dacia for 1,000 years; and not much of importance for us even after that time until the 19th century.

But the language and the national spirit survived for these 1,600 years (270—1850), if we jump now into the middle of the nineteenth century, and they still occupied the lands north of the Lower Danube for the greater part of its lower course and south and east and west of the last stretches of that river, where it suddenly turns north and then east again into the Black Sea.

The population is nearly double that of Canada—13,000,000. But it is not all in Roumania; only about our numbers are in Roumania proper—7,000,000. Three and one-half millions are under the Hungarian flag—very much under it—in Transylvania; 230,000 are under the milder rule of Austria in Bukovina; 200,000 are in Serbia, and 350,000 scattered through the Balkans. And further (and this is important), 1,350,000 are under the Russian flag in Bessarabia, north of the mouth of the Danube. It is this Roumania irredenta in Bessarabia and under Russian rule which goes some way to cancel the appeal made by the three and one-half millions of Roumanians in Transylvania, which are to be rescued first and foremost, the victims of Russian or of Austro-Hungarian rule.

Until 1878 the Roumans recognized the suzerainty of the Turks; but only his suzerainty. During the Crimean War, in the fifties, the land was occupied by an Austrian army after its evacuation by the Russians in 1854. The Congress of Paris, in 1856, re-established the land as two principalities—Moldavia and Wallachia—and gave Bessarabia back to Roumania. But early in 1858, through French influence and sympathy, the two were united under one Prince, Alexander Cuza, and in 1861 Turkey acknowledged the Roumanian nation.

In 1866 Cuza was banished by a rising of his nobles. He was a well-meaning but rather high-handed and autocratic reformer; and Carlos—a Catholic Hohenzollern—was elected in his place, with the approval of Napoleon III., but not—curiously—through any support from Prussia or Austria. (Napoleon afterwards lost his crown when resisting the candidature of Carlos' brother Leo-

pold for the throne of Spain; *his* candidature was supported originally and even prompted by Prussian influence through the scheming of Bismarck.)

With Carlos began the real history of Roumania. He showed great ability, and in particular he managed her foreign politics single-handed. In 1878 he joined Russia against his suzerain, Turkey. The help of his army was not asked at first; the Russians loftily told him they needed a right of way, but not an army from him, but when Russia had to ask for his army it proved invaluable and helped greatly in the defeat of Turkey. Prince Carlos (or Charles) became King Charles in 1881, with the consent of Europe, and the suzerainty of Turkey disappeared.

But with 1878 also began another force in Roumanian politics besides the growth of her national spirit and the repudiation of Turkey. Between the Crimean War and 1878 Roumania had included Bessarabia. After the war against Turkey of 1878, victorious Russia had the egregious folly to help herself, at Roumania's expense, to Bessarabia, giving Roumania in exchange a strip of land to the south of her previous borders, and forming part of Bulgaria—a piece of the Dobrudscha. Roumania protested, and Russia said she might have to disarm the Roumanian army. Carlos answered that the victors of Plevna might be conquered, but could not be disarmed by Russia.

No piece of folly and greed on Russia's part was ever more signally punished. Can you wonder if Roumania hung back and was not enthusiastic for the Allies, when she remembered 1878, her exertions for Russia and against Turkey, and the sort of gratitude Russia showed her? Lord Beaconsfield, at the Berlin Conference, said privately to the Roumanian representative that in politics the best services are often rewarded with ingratitude. As a matter of fact, what he did—or rather, what his seconder, Lord Salisbury, did—was to secure Roumania a hearing; but the hearing did not avail her. Lord Salisbury remarked dryly at the Conference or Congress of Berlin, that “the Congress having heard the representatives of Greece, which was claiming foreign provinces, it would be but fair to listen to the representatives of a country which claimed only what was its own.” This palpable hit, compelled the plenipotentiaries in spite of the opposition of Russia, to give Roumania her hearing, but nothing but a hearing; she did not recover Bessarabia.

The hearing, as I have said, did not avail her. Lord Salisbury, shortly before this, had taken the same line as Lord Beaconsfield, when speaking to the Roumanian special envoy in London. He had assured him of England's sympathy and assistance, but had added the significant corollary, "but, to be quite candid, there are questions of more concern in England, and should she be able to come to an understanding with Russia with regard to them, she would not wage war for the sake of Roumania." This very candid friendship for Roumania was exemplified in the actual arrangement made between Russia and Great Britain at the Congress. It was published, by an indiscretion, in the *London Globe* of June, 1878. "The Government of her Britannic Majesty considers that it will feel itself bound to express its deep regret should Russia persist in demanding the retrocession of Bessarabia. England's interest in this question is not, however, such as to justify her in taking upon herself alone the responsibility of opposing the intended exchange."

And now, gentlemen, you understand what is meant when it is said that Great Britain used to refuse to take Roumania seriously; and also you understand why Roumania, up to August, 1916, was not too eager to join Great Britain or Great Britain's ally, Russia.

The offenders heretofore have been Russia and Great Britain in this matter of Roumania and the Balkans.

But in 1912 and 1913, during the two Balkan wars, Roumania became herself the offender. She took no part in the war of 1912 against Turkey, but she availed herself of the victory of Bulgaria, Greece and Serbia to demand compensation. For what? For the disturbance of the balance of power in the Balkans. There is just the same excitement in the Balkans about the balance of power locally, as in Europe as a whole over the European balance; and it has been an infinitely more mischievous principle in the Balkans than in Europe; it has prevented the natural and even the necessary principle there—the alliance of the Balkan States with one another against Russia, on the one hand, and Austria on the other. Had Roumania—Greece—Bulgaria and Serbia been allied together, and perhaps even persuaded Turkey ultimately to join them, there would have been no Russian or Austro-German aggression against them, no Russian or Austro-German scheming for Constantinople or Saloniki, and an open door towards Asia Minor and Bagdad. But Roumania did *not* join the Balkan league of Bulgaria, Greece



and Serbia against Turkey; and she did more than not join it; she demanded compensation for their victories. Russia was appointed arbitrator in the winter of 1912, and gave her an extension of territory in the Dobrudscha at the expense of Bulgaria (it was Bulgaria's extension which Roumania specially feared). Hardly had Roumania made this gain of territory to the south (where her frontier had been especially weak and unscientific) when the second Balkan war broke out, in June, 1913. Roumania at once took the chance opened to her. With the connivance or consent of Russia, she invaded Bulgaria—already at war with Greece and Serbia, and threatened with war also by Turkey—poured her troops into Bulgaria, and marched on Sofia. Bulgaria could not resist four armies at once, and in the conference at Bucharest in September, 1913, Roumania received a further extension of territory in the Dobrudscha, and came out of an almost bloodless war—so far as she was concerned—victoriously and with more Bulgarian territory for her share of the victory.

When the Great War broke out, in 1914, it is understood that the king, who managed Roumania's foreign politics, desired to join his kinsman, Emperor William. His ministry objected that Roumania knew nothing officially of any tie between her and the Hohenzollerns. The king, it is understood, then turned to the commander-in-chief and suggested a *coup d'état* on behalf of Germany and Austria. The commander objected that a *coup d'état* would destroy the king and not the ministry. The king is reported to have remarked bitterly, "You don't know what it feels like, gentlemen, to be a stranger single-handed in a foreign land." He was still a Hohenzollern, you perceive, and not a Roumanian. There the struggle rested for a few weeks, and the king died in the autumn, lucky, perhaps, in having built up a strong nation, having guided its foreign politics successfully for nearly fifty years, and then in dying before the worst difficulties of directing its foreign politics had fully revealed themselves. There can be no doubt that his death was—like the first Balkan War—a heavy blow to Austro-Germany.

His nephew, Ferdinand, the present king, succeeded. It is assumed that he, also, as a Hohenzollern, would have liked to join Austro-Germany; but he had not the prestige and influence of his great predecessor and uncle. And his wife is an English woman,

the daughter of the Duke of Edinburgh. Probably he is not so wholly Teutonic therefore in his sympathies as his uncle was.

But you see the divisions and the difficulties in the way of Roumanian action. The Allies are Russia, Great Britain, France, Italy. I mention them in the order of their power, so far as Roumania is concerned. Russia they obviously had no occasion to love much; and if she held Constantinople, their only access to the sea, their position would be far worse than when it is held by a weak power like Turkey. Russia holds their Bessarabian brethren still under her government. Great Britain has been only a candid friend—the friend we don't love much, though we may feel a sort of respect for his candor.

France is much more loved. Roumania is the creation of France of the Emperor Napoleon III., but the third Republic has been too busy with other things to maintain the Emperor's interest in Roumania. And though everyone in Roumania can speak French, and though Bucharest is called "little Paris" and is a little Paris both for good and evil, and young Roumanians go to Paris to study, and besides studying, waste their substance in Parisian living, and acquire more manners than morals, still the tie with France was not of itself sufficient to plunge the country into a desperate war for France's sake.

The tie, fortunately for us, did not stand quite by itself. There is Italy. Roumania, as a Roman colony—speaking a language even nearer Latin than modern Italian is—naturally gravitates towards Italy rather than towards the other Balkan States, which speak Greek or Slave tongues, and we used to assume that Italy's entrance into the war would at once draw Roumania with it.

Perhaps it would have done so had the season been auspicious; but the auspicious moment for intervention—up to last August, that is—was April, 1915, when the Carpathians were full of Russian troops, when Premysl had fallen to the Russian arms, when Austria-Hungary seemed at her last gasp, and when Transylvania seemed an easy conquest, with her Roumanian population of three and one-half millions, to a Roumanian army of 600,000 good soldiers.

But these soldiers—like all the allied armies—were short of munitions, and they had been accustomed to buy from Germany, ever since 1878, and the ingratitude of Russia. They had orders out with Krupp. Krupp naturally was in no hurry to fill the orders;

they were not filled, and, most of all, Italy was not yet committed to war. She only came in in May, after the great German drive through Galicia and the collapse of the ill-armed Russian armies before Von Mackenson's artillery had already begun. Roumania hung back, therefore, in April, and within a month no doubt was mortally glad that she had hung back. Galicia was reconquered for the Teutonic alliance, and no second opportunity came in 1915 tempting enough to draw Roumania down from her fence. Her so-called Conservative party was vigorously pro-ally, under Mr. Take Jonescu; but her Liberal Premier, Bratiano, was an able understudy or counterpart of Mr. Asquith: "Wait and see" was his last word. Party politics in Roumania are not very different from party politics in Italy and France before the war; they are rather personal than constitutional; and there is more personal interest than principle in them. Moreover, the land—unlike Serbia and Greece and Bulgaria—has the remnants of a landed aristocracy and an acute land question. There is perennial friction between land owners and peasants, perennial fears of a jacquerie or peasant rising. It is not unlikely that the landed proprietors, like the king, leaned to the aristocrats of Hungary and Austria and Prussia, who are fighting this war as a last struggle against democracy, and were not keen supporters of Mr. Take Jonescu, though he is called the Conservative leader. The title probably means little more, if as much, than it means in Canada or in Ontario. Roumania has—as has been said already—many affinities with Italy. Some of them quite apart from blood and language. I mean that just as Italy went into the German-Austrian alliance as a *pis aller* because she was terribly afraid of Austria, and could only be her little foe or her ally, and not being able to be her foe—when she had a quarrel with France over Tunis—had perforce to become Austria's ally; so Roumania, having a quarrel with Russia over Bessarabia, could not afford to be neutral towards her other neighbor, Austria. She had either to court Austria or make up her quarrel with Russia. She preferred the former course before the Great War. The Great War gave her a breathing space and the opportunity, for a time at least, of a real neutrality. But it could not last forever. And unless Roumania could remake a Balkan alliance with Greece, Bulgaria and Serbia, if not Turkey also, as its members, an alliance which bristled then with difficulties, though it was possible in 1912, she was

bound ultimately to choose between Russia and Austro-Hungary. And if she chose our side we have to thank France and Italy more for her choice than ourselves. We began too late to take Roumania seriously.

I have omitted, I notice, any references to religions. A man's religion is the most interesting thing about him, said Carlyle, and it ought to be true also of a State's religion. It is not so, however, in Roumania. Roumania has not taken religion very seriously. The national Church is orthodox, the Greek Church, with its own local Bishops, however, and not controlled from Constantinople by the Greek Patriarch. It is the church of her peasants, but it does not seriously influence her Gallicized upper classes. There is also the Uniate Church, which is a curious mixture of the Greek and Roman churches. The Uniate clergy, like the Greek clergy, or the Protestant clergy, have the right to marry, and in their private lives, therefore, are nearer Eastern or North-western Europe than they are to Rome; but, technically, in its creed, the Uniate Church is Roman Catholic and acknowledges the rule of Rome. As technical theology is out of date and fashion at the present time, I must assume that the Uniate Church, as well as the National Church proper of Roumania is more likely to draw the country to the Allies than towards Austria, the only really Roman Catholic power engaged in the Great War.

And now we come to August of last year (1916) and Roumania's plunge into the war. It is generally supposed that her entrance then was neither exactly voluntary on her part or on the part of the Allies. It is supposed that Germany compelled her to choose without further parleying, and that, under these circumstances, she chose our side, though neither Russia nor France nor Great Britain were ready just then to offer her much aid. However, she chose the Allies. Having chosen, she took a second step, which has been much criticized, and which perhaps was taken on her own account and not in accordance with the wishes or advice of her Allies. Instead of invading Bulgaria from the north, and thus relieving the pressure of Germany on Saloniki, she invaded Hungary (Transylvania, that is) from the south in order to win back her three and one-half millions of Transylvanian brethren. The invasion, as you all remember, went well for a few weeks, and then collapsed. Von Mackenson and Von Falkenhayn overran Transyl-



vania, invaded Roumania itself and captured the whole of Wallachia, i.e., Western and Southern Roumania. The Roumanians lost Bucharest, their capital, and the northern bank of the Danube. They lost also the eastern and southern banks of the river, where it separates Roumania from the Dobrudsha. And they now hold only a small part of the river near Galatz, and the old Province of Moldavia, i.e., North-eastern Roumania. They still hold out there, supported by Russian armies, and their capital and court have been removed to Jassy, the city in the extreme north of their territory, adjoining the Bukovina, which is held by their Russian allies, and saves them from being attacked in the rear, as the Carpathians save them on the west, and there for the moment the war rests, and this paper closes.

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## COLLEGE AND SECONDARY SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

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### *SHOULD LATIN BE REQUIRED AT MATRICULATION?*

PROFESSOR J. F. MACDONALD, QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY.

The subject on which I am about to hazard an opinion this afternoon is one that had not reached even the position of an academic question before the latter half of the 19th century. "Should Latin be required for entrance to a University?" was a problem that would hardly arise in the early history of European universities. Throughout the Middle Ages, Latin was the usual language in which scholars and statesmen of different countries communicated with each other, and in which theology, history, philosophy, and science were written. A knowledge of Latin was necessary to get any formal education.

Moreover, hardly any literature was to be found in the vernacular tongues, except romances and folk poetry. Indeed Dante's famous treatise, "*De vulgari eloquentia*," at the beginning of the 14th century, is the first serious effort in any European country to justify the use of the vernacular as a literary language. Three centuries later, Francis Bacon felt it necessary to write his great "*Instauratio*" in Latin that it might be more readily understood by scholars of his own day and more sure of readers in the future. We must remember, too, that Milton debated long whether Latin or English should be the language of his great epic, as it was the language of his controversy with Salmasius and of some of his most intimate personal poems.

In English literature the 18th century was dominated by men who consciously imitated classic models. Pope, Gibbon, Johnson, Burke—what a difference there would be in their works if they had not been students of Horace and Cicero. And further, the very language we read became so Latinized at the close of the 17th century that its vocabulary for a time was more Latin than Teutonic.

One almost needs to be a Latin scholar to read with understanding some of the prose of Milton and Taylor and Brownè.

I suppose the great movement we call Renaissance was what really undermined the stronghold of Latin. Men found, as the new learning spread, that if they wished to get the best thought of the ancient world they must turn from the second-hand literature of Rome and go to the original Greek. They did turn to Greek and found there an unhesitating acceptance of reason as the sole guide to truth. Now this open-mindedness of the Greeks was the real basis of modern science. Yet it is modern science and its marvellous development that to-day threatens to crowd Latin out of the list of subjects for Matriculation. That Renaissance movement which we call the Reformation has had perhaps even more influence in ousting Latin from its hold on popular education. The Reformation spread broadcast in Germany and the Low Countries and in England translations of the Bible in the vernacular of these lands. Further, the worship in the reformed churches was no longer in Latin. Indeed the language of Rome and the religion of Rome came to be associated in popular prejudice. The old dominance of the imperial tongue was gone forever.

The shifting of emphasis on the different subjects commonly taught in secondary schools has been most pronounced in France, where Latin is no longer necessary either for entrance to or graduation from a University. In Germany, too, since 1901, Latin has not been an obligatory subject for matriculation. The condition of affairs in the U. S. is thus summarized by Ex-President Eliot of Harvard in an article in the *March Atlantic Monthly* on "The Case Against Completing Latin."

"From an analysis of the requirements for admission in seventy-six of the leading American colleges and universities, it appears that in a decided majority Latin is not essential for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, and that four-ninths of the institutions whose practices have been examined make no demand on the secondary schools of the country that they teach Latin."

In Britain, Latin is still required for entrance to the Arts course in Oxford and Cambridge, and even in the great new universities of Birmingham and Manchester. In Canada, Latin is necessary for matriculation into the faculties of Arts and Medicine in every

one of our universities or colleges, except the new University of British Columbia, where there is an option between Latin and Greek. This practically means compulsory Latin.

The present position of Latin in Ontario is beginning to be seriously challenged. The question of compulsory Latin, for instance, was one of the subjects for consideration on the agenda of this year's Matriculation Conference. It is true that nothing was done, or even recommended, but sooner or later the case for making Latin optional will be presented to the universities more cogently than it has yet been. Those who favor the retention of Latin as an obligatory subject would do well to remember this, and to marshal their arguments for keeping it in its present pride of place.

The case against it will be strongly pressed after the war, when, for a time at least, there will be tremendous energy expended in reconstructing everything, from our system of railways to our system of education. The practical man will be dominant, and will be likely to give short shrift to anything whose use is not obvious. And let me again remind the friends of Latin that its use, at any rate its necessity, is not obvious, even to men who do not lack either general education, or what we somewhat vaguely describe as culture.

Take for example the argument of Huxley against Latin—an argument now over half a century old. He begins, you may remember, with the thesis that "the diffusion of thorough scientific education is an absolutely essential condition of industrial progress," a thesis that no one to-day is likely to dispute. He goes on to say: "The fact is that neither the discipline nor the subject matter of classical education is of such direct value to the student of physical science as to justify the expenditure of valuable time upon either." Certainly the subject matter of the Latin required for University matriculation in Ontario—a little of Virgil and a little of Cæsar—does not justify the expenditure of valuable time because of any direct value it has for the student of physical science. Has it a value as discipline that would justify its retention as a compulsory subject?

The favorite argument for compulsory Latin has long rested on this doctrine of formal discipline. It was argued, it is still argued, that the study of the Latin language gives a training in logic and severe mental application that cannot be replaced by the study of



any other subject in the curriculum. Modern experimental psychology, however, claims to have carried this first line of defence by proving that the value of formal discipline has been immensely over-rated. The "discipline" given by a study of Latin cannot be carried over, these experimenters claim, into other fields of study. In a word, all mental training is specific, not general. The study of Latin, it is true, enables the pupil to study Latin or allied languages more effectively, but it adds little or nothing to his ability in business or scientific research or the art of living with his fellow-men. In short, the study of Latin affords no general superiority in training of intellect over that afforded by the proper study of any one of a dozen other subjects.

Is this argument sound? The whole question of the value of formal discipline is still unsettled, but so far as I can determine from reading parts of the controversy, the claim of the more extreme opponents of the doctrine, that there are no general results obtained from formal discipline, may be dismissed with the Scotch verdict, "not proven." I confess to a suspicion of the methods and the results of some experimenters. The young psychologist, with a reputation to make and a little ingenuity, can prove marvellous things by experiments with school children. He hits on some new notion and straightway makes experiments to bolster it up. Wading through pages of statistics which, the experimenters declared, proved the futility of formal discipline, I felt, as never before, the correctness of Bagehot's classification, "There are lies, damned lies, and statistics." We must remember, however, that the old defence of Latin based on the training it gave the faculties in general is no longer valid, especially against those who do not believe it.

Of course it is easy to point out that the opponents of compulsory Latin are at least as inconsistent as its advocates. Those who wish to have French or German or some branch of science either made optional with Latin or substituted for it on the Matriculation curriculum declare in one breath that the formal discipline of studying Latin is useless, and in the next that French or Chemistry gives as much formal discipline, and is besides a subject that can be applied in practical life. Their argument is like the choice given his victim by the sharper, "Heads I win, tails you lose." Those of us who have taught Latin in the High Schools, and have noted the progress made by candidates for Normal Entrance, most of whom

take Latin as a bonus subject, have been struck, I am sure, by a peculiar phenomenon. The ones who do not take Latin generally fall behind their mates in other subjects. I know how statistics can be made to lie, and refrain from using them, but still feel that the fact needs some explaining. It is true that the dull and the lazy generally try to drop the Latin and, having less to do, do ever less and less. But I remember, some eight or ten cases covering a period of four or five years, where, so far as I could judge, the students were not lacking in ability. Yet in every one of these cases I am thinking of, the student not taking Latin gradually dropped behind his equals who took it, in the subjects they had in common. If there is nothing in the doctrine of formal discipline, there must be a good deal in the habit of hard work. One recalls the remark of Sydney Smith, "The study of the classics is valuable because they make the life of the young student what it ought to be—one of considerable labor."

Let me recall your attention to the exact subject of consideration: Should Latin be required at Matriculation? There is no one, I take it, who wishes to have Latin removed from the list of subjects which may be taken for matriculation, but there is a growing number who wish to have it removed from the list of those that must be taken. Probably most of you will agree that English and History should be compulsory; many will add Mathematics to the list; almost as many will add Latin; but I doubt if a majority of you would agree on any other subject, with the possible exception of French. The real question, then, amounts to this: Should Latin be given a position in the curriculum that is denied to French and German, and Greek and Physics and Chemistry?

So far as matriculation into the faculty of Arts is concerned, I am, as yet at least, among those who believe that Latin should have this advantage. In the first place, I am prepared to argue that it has at least as good a claim as Mathematics, either on the basis of disciplinary value (if you believe in that), or on the basis of its utility in ordinary life. Of what use is any part of mathematics, except elementary arithmetic, to the overwhelming majority even of college graduates? Addition, multiplication and subtraction serve our turn, especially subtraction in these days of contribution to war purposes and war profiteers. Not a man of us, save some mathematicians who may have strayed in here by mistake, has had

for years to guess at the factors of an expression bristling with different powers of  $x$  and  $y$ , nor been called on to demonstrate or make use of the proposition that the area of the square on the side opposite the right angle of a right-angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides. And yet I, for one, would not willingly have missed the pleasure, and, as I think, the profit, that I got from studying the crystal-clear logic of Euclid's geometry.

What about French and German? Undoubtedly French has special claims here in Canada, even beyond the strong argument that can be made for it as a necessary language for science or literature. One could wish indeed that our High School graduates were able to read it when they finish their three or four years' course. How salutary it would be, for instance, to have every High School and Collegiate graduate in Toronto able to read the editorials in *Le Devoir*, and see for himself what the terrible Mr. Bourassa has said, instead of depending on the summary in, let us say, *The News*. The *bonne entente* might have a chance for its life.

The present is no time to discuss German, even if it is necessary for science and theology.

Everyone who wishes to become a scholar must sooner or later learn at least one of these languages, if not both. Are they, therefore, on the same footing with Latin? I am willing to concede that, for the university man taking a science course, they have more direct and far more obvious use. A reading knowledge of them is a necessary instrument for the scientist, and, to a greater or less degree, for every scholar. But a knowledge of Latin is by no means unimportant. The whole international vocabulary of science is Latin or Greek in origin (except German science, of course). Think of the student studying anatomy and getting the names of the muscles by sheer memory! However, one could hardly make out a sufficient case for Latin on this basis.

But before presenting what seem to me the real grounds for retaining Latin, I must say a word about Experimental Science. Its advocates never used to grow weary in telling us how it trained the powers of observation and made its devotees practical. I think we all know just how much value there is in science study for training the observation. The boy who is taking it makes, as I found, just as wild a guess as the one who isn't, when you ask him how many



windows there are in the east side of the school, or how many panes of glass in the window he has sat beside all year. Moreover, I haven't noticed that scientists are more practical than their classical brethren. I know some of them, at least, who aren't practical enough to apply the laws of physics, and empty a washtub with a garden hose for a siphon, instead of a wooden pail for a ladle. But the scientists talk, and I suppose will continue to talk, about the value of the study of science for its effect on the powers of observation, for its practical utility, and for the method of study, the proper method of study, that it breeds in its students. If it is so desirable there is something I don't understand in the attitude of the science men in our universities. They profess not to care whether physics and chemistry are taught beyond Junior Matriculation in the schools or not. Some even say they prefer to have science students who begin science at the university. Can one have too much of a good thing? I notice that students intending to take an honor course in Toronto are not required or encouraged to take Honor Matriculation in science subjects. English, Mathematics, French and German—if they take these at Honor Matriculation a year is cut off their Science course. Can we make a subject compulsory for Matriculation when its professors seem to think it a matter of indifference whether it be taught to their would-be disciples before these learners enter the university laboratories? And mind you I agree with the Science men in this, for, as Mr. Livingstone points out in his recent book, "A Defence of Classical Education," too much science when you are young spoils your appetite and capacity for more.

Here is an extract translated by Mr. Livingstone from the report by the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin University, made ten years after Latin ceased to be a compulsory subject for entrance to a science course: "It is emphasized by the instructors of chemistry that graduates of *Realschulen* (Modern Schools) do not stand upon the same level with graduates of *Gymnasia* (Classical Schools). Professor Hoffman observes that the students from the *Realschulen*, in consequence of their being conversant with a large number of facts, outrank, as a rule, those of the first half-year, but that the situation is soon reversed, and, given equal abilities, the latter almost invariably carry off the honors in the end; that the latter are mentally better trained, and have acquired in a higher degree the ability to understand and solve scientific problems."



Science, then, we may count out of the running.

Let us go back to modern languages. What advantages over them has Latin? In the first place, Latin (and this applies to Greek also) has underlying its structure a kind of mental process radically different from what underlies every other modern language. The student of Latin is compelled to work over his English phraseology and sentence structure in translating Latin in a way that neither French nor German makes him. It is for that very reason an incomparably better training in English Composition. It compels thought and experiment and careful judgment.

In the second place Latin is almost necessary for precision in the use of English. Leave out of count the conjunctions, the prepositions, the pronouns, the verbs *to be*, *to do*, and *to have*—all the cement of language—and a good 40%, perhaps 50%, of English is Latin in origin. The man who knows the original has an immense advantage over the one who doesn't. I make bold to say that one of the main reasons for the execrable English so often written by graduates of our practical science schools is the fact that these students never had to learn Latin. They have missed the training in discrimination among words that translation from Latin compels, and so they lack any lively sense of the exact meaning of words. There is a very interesting booklet issued by the United States Geological Survey for the guidance of those in its service when they are preparing papers for publication. The editor, Dr. Wood, head of the department, charges that as a rule practical science men are unable to use their own language with precision. He has page after page of illustrations taken from reports written by men who were B.Sc.'s or D.Sc.'s or Ph.D.'s. One short sentence and Dr. Wood's revision of it has stuck in my head. "The application of this metal is expanding along various lines," says the report. How much simpler and clearer it would be, says the editor, to write "The use of this metal is increasing for different purposes." This kind of inaccurate and inflated diction is what one gets all too often in the reports of our own Geological Survey. Now, I cannot help feeling that a training in Latin (just because it develops something of a conscience in the choice of words) goes a long way towards preventing such slipshod English.

In the third place, Latin is a difficult language, which the college student does not care to start learning. Unless it is required

for Matriculation, it will almost certainly be taken by fewer and fewer as time goes on until it falls to something like the present status of Greek in Ontario. French will be taken by three-fourths or more of the candidates if left optional, as it is now. I doubt whether one-fourth of the matriculants would take Latin in ten years' time if they didn't have to. Just consider how this omission would react on the university courses. The honor courses in science would be free of its burden; there would soon be a movement to have it removed from the general course, from the moderns course, from the English and History course. You would have specialists with a vengeance. The fine product of such a system would be like a certain American professor, a Ph.D., from whom I had the misfortune to take a course on the Liturgical drama. He was something of an authority forsooth on the Liturgical drama, and he couldn't stumble through a page of the simple Latin, in which these little church plays were written, without making half a dozen "howlers" in translating. Surely if we want scholars in History or in English or in the Romance languages, we must keep the language in which the sources of their knowledge is written.

Finally, the study of Latin is a short cut to at least a reading knowledge of the Romance group, French, Italian, Spanish. The point is so obvious that it needs no labored argument to enforce it.

On the whole, then, I believe Latin should be retained as a compulsory subject for Arts Matriculation. It is at least as valuable for either discipline or utility as Mathematics; the scientists seem to think little of the claims of Experimental Science; and to have an equal chance with French, if you will pardon the bull, Latin should be given an advantage over it.

The utility of Latin is not so obvious as that of a modern language, but it is none the less real because not apparent to every mushroom millionaire who in his after dinner leisure draws up new schemes for making education practical. The disciple who chants the praise of his dead masters in "The Grammarian's Funeral" saw the folly of trying short cuts to learning.

"Oh, if we draw a circle premature,  
Heedless of far gain,  
Greedy for quick returns of profit,  
Sure bad is our bargain."

There is reason to fear that it will be a bad bargain for the universities of Canada if Latin is no longer required to enter their Arts courses.

## MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

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### *ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT (J. HOME CAMERON).*

(ABRIDGED.)

The address began by mention of the losses this Section has suffered in various ways; and notably through the resignation of an excellent Secretary, Professor A. E. Lang, on account of pressure of his regular work; and then through the death of Professor W. H. Fraser, to whose memory a tribute was presently to be paid by Professor Squair, who, with him, took a very prominent part in the founding of the Modern Language Association.

In the midst of these discouragements, it was consoling to have been able to persuade Professor Squair (now a Professor Emeritus after thirty-three years of service) to assume once more the duties of the Secretaryship which he and Professors Fraser and Needler had for so many years shared amongst them.

[The main body of the address was devoted to a consideration of some of the lessons which Modern Language teachers might learn from the disillusionment and the awakening brought by the War.] The exercise of great economy is one of the most obvious necessities of the present crisis. That all forms of material waste should be stopped, is self-evident; but there is often much wasted effort—great waste of that energy, which abounds in this happy country, and of which we are apt to be so prodigal. The War itself, while on the one hand, it exceeds in horrible destructiveness everything in the history of mankind, is, on the other, a great lesson in simplicity and economy of effort, for it is showing to the world what wonders can be accomplished by the whole-hearted and disinterested concentration of action. Now, are these costly lessons to be lost to Canadians; or are we going to mend our wasteful methods of work in the forest, the mine, the fields, the workshop, and the school? If not, how are we going to compete with the other nations who will have learned from the War vastly more effective ways of production and manufacture than we have ever

dreamt of? If all our men who return from Great Britain and France (our two mother-countries) are disappointed to find so many signs that Canadians do not realize the meaning of what is going on, is it surprising that they should feel anxiety about our future? Some things we can not escape: the financial burden of an enormous national debt, and our moral obligations to the thousands of our soldiers who come home disabled, as well as to the families of those who will never return.

What part are we teachers to take in the great reconstruction? Our first care must be to keep open minds and observant eyes. Enslaved as we are by excessive routine, our action may have to be largely individual at present, but it should not always remain so—There is new meaning in the old platitude that the teacher should be a centre of inspiration to the community. Our responsibilities were never so great. Look at our national problems. How can we break the tyranny of the spirit of party? How can we arrest the growing hostility between our races? How can we educate and Canadianize our foreign population? How can we most effectively contribute to the great union of the British Empire? Could we teachers ask for larger questions to debate? And there is now to be added to them this other, how to make sure that women are going to vote more intelligently than a large proportion of our men. What could be more timely than the formation of classes of young women (and young men as well) for the study of such questions under the guidance of an intelligent and open-minded leader, such as a teacher ought to be, and sometimes is?

And the work of the school, what changes are coming into it? There will be much greater emphasis on the useful and "practical." Technical education will have to be very much extended; it is the key to many problems, though not to all.—Young people will have to be more wisely guided in the direction of their educational needs, and saved from wasteful pursuit of studies for which they are not fitted—Our secondary schools are being ruined by multiplicity of subjects and inflexibility of curriculum. And yet room may have to be found for new subjects—Spanish, for example. . . .

Whatever may come or go, the proper use of our mother-tongue must remain one of the great foundations of all our education, and one of its greatest tests. Our schools might do much more than they do to prevent the rapid barbarizing of our language,



pronunciation, as well as vocabulary idiom. As that deterioration is not entirely due to so-called American influence, it is the more difficult to hold in check. The Modern Language teacher should be the most powerful ally of the English department of the Secondary Schools in the effort to get from the pupils the best English of which they are capable, and to teach them how to improve their own range and accuracy in the use of words. We all know the adages, "Every lesson in a foreign tongue is also a lesson in English" and again, "No one knows his own language till he has learnt to use another." There is a great deal of truth in these two educational commonplaces. And we must not forget that for those who would attain to delicacy in the use of English, some knowledge of Latin is absolutely indispensable—scarcely less so than it is for those who aim at a perfect command of French.—In the meantime, the command of English amongst University First Year students leaves much to be desired.

There are two important departments, however, in which teachers of Modern Languages, *if properly trained*, should have undisputed superiority to all others (1.) The correction of our vices of pronunciation, (and of any local dialectal peculiarities which it may be desirable to eliminate) by the use of that wonderfully direct instrument, the science of phonetics, in which we Canadians are so far behind our mother-country, to say nothing of the continental nations of Europe. (It ought to be assumed, as a matter of course, that when we attempt to teach any *foreign* language, we make some use of phonetic methods; the present plea is for their use in English as well.)—(2.) The teaching of English to our foreign population, as the most efficient beginning in the process of making them good Canadians. This work, as well as that of teaching them their civic duties and responsibilities we have scarcely as yet begun to face seriously. Our "Social Service" students should all receive training in the use of phonetic methods, such as similar persons, including prospective missionaries, do get in other progressive countries, notably the British Isles and the United States. The Modern Language teacher, trained in the proper way, is still better prepared for this work, by reason of the added experience in the understanding of foreign languages and points of view. [Reference was here made to the remarkable success of a long series of experiments with the alphabet of the

International Phonetic Association in teaching children to read and write their own language, and the extraordinary results attained, not only in the rapidity of their progress, but in their subsequent accuracy in ordinary spelling.—*e.g.* Mr. H. E. Palmer in *What is Phonetics* (Letter X.) reports among children learning English an improvement of 50 per cent. Professor Paul Passy is equally convincing in his pamphlet, *La Phonétique appliquée à l'enseignement de la lecture.*]

The experience of many years has everywhere confirmed the conviction that a smattering of phonetics is particularly dangerous, and that here nothing is of any value but a thorough training. Hence the existence, down to the very instant of the outbreak of the War, of numerous phonetic vacation-schools in Great Britain, France, Germany, and Switzerland. It is therefore encouraging to see that the Ontario Minister of Education is repeating this year his generous offer of a Summer Course in practical French, without fees or examinations, to all the regularly qualified teachers of the Province. [For an account of what was attempted in this way last year, and of Summer Schools for French in general, see *infra* the interesting paper by Miss C. C. Grant.]

[The last part of the address was taken up in pointing out and emphasizing the increasing demands that will certainly now be made of the Modern Language teachers within their own particular department.] Too many pupils leave the Secondary Schools and too many enter the Universities deplorably inaccurate in their habits, unaccustomed to punctuation, unable to follow with decent care the translation of a text from English or any other language, and too often quite ignorant of the foreign words (in French for instance) used to designate the very commonest objects, qualities, and actions.

[The simplest picture-vocabulary, of which there are several excellent ones, would help to remedy this defect]—People will now expect, with good reason, that our teaching of French should have much more life in it. French geography is now a fascinating subject, good maps can be had (too often, however, with characteristic British blunders, like “Liège,” “Chateau-Salines,” etc.); and the proper names of men and places in France can surely make French pronunciation interesting. Sometimes a returned soldier will be found who will be delighted to tell the pupils what he has

learned of the map and the people; and if his pronunciation is peculiar, he may have acquired that something infinitely more creditable to which we should take off our hats. (Cases can be cited where the disabled soldier has, as soon as he got his map, turned out to be a very effective lecturer, and when he had war-pictures of authentic value, he did still better.) Albums of maps and pictures exist in great numbers, and pamphlets issued by the French Government can be had sometimes from the French Consuls, resident at Toronto or Montreal.—The French Section of the school library should be looked after intelligently. A small grant from the School Board could, if wisely spent, provide most attractive reading-matter. A weekly paper like *Les Annales* could be subscribed for.<sup>1</sup> Any of the Universities would be glad to furnish a list of the best French books and pamphlets on the War. No better guide could be found here than our Secretary, who is always willing to assist the teachers in their good work.

As teachers of Modern Languages, let us be worthy of our inheritance. Let us meet our new responsibilities with that thoughtful sanity which our country needs so much. As we teach others, let us never cease to learn with all our might. Let us never forget that we have chosen it as our work to teach what are so excellently named in the speech of France *les langues vivantes*.

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<sup>1</sup>Interesting occupation could be made in searching for the meaning of the *grands mots de la guerre*, and the occasion of their first use. e.g. "*Jusqu'au bout*"—"Pourvu qu'ils tiennent!"—"Debout, les morts!"—"Ils ne passeront pas"—"Nous les aurons."—"Ne vous en faites pas," etc.—Many articles on the war have been collected by Professor Squair to form a little book, *En temps de guerre*. (Copp, Clarke Co., 1916.)

NECESSARY QUALIFICATIONS OF A LANGUAGE  
TEACHER.

R. KEITH HICKS, QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY.

The XVII. century moralists, La Rochefoucauld, La Bruyère, de Méré, and the rest, who sought to establish the canon of gentlemanly manners for their time, were wont to enumerate the various qualities of the *honnête homme*—to wit, a pleasing and urbane presence, a ready tongue, the complete suppression of pedantry, and the absence of the least hint of professionalism. To these, however, they added a final polish and grace, which they were forced to call "*le je ne sais quoi*." That is what I shall try to establish for the art and practice of teaching language, and therefore perhaps this paper were better entitled "The Unnecessary Qualifications of a Language Teacher," though that depends on the point of view. "If you aim at the moon," says an Arab proverb, never too often to be quoted, "you may hit the tops of the trees." The teacher with high ideals will, in the final count, which is life-long influence on his pupils' method of thought, and therefore of expression, eclipse the pedagogue whose horizon is limited by the matriculation lists. But in any case this final polish and grace—scholarship we may term it incompletely—will so sharpen and poise the more material instruments of the craft that the work of preparing for examination will itself be more soundly and efficiently accomplished.

What, first of all, are the essentials—not the vexatious side-shows that the exigencies of our school system force upon the unresisting victims of Faculty curricula, method in plain sewing for the science specialist, method in physics and plumbing for the classical teacher, and so on—but the simple, ordinary equipment without which no man or woman can hope to teach French. From the teacher of French, then I would require: the ability to hold a simple and phonetically accurate conversation in that language, a clear understanding of the sounds and their production, exact knowledge of an elementary text-book of grammar, and the ability to write grammatically. That is the class-room minimum, or ought to be. Actually, I fear, many teachers aspire only to the last two.



for the simple reason that they are quite sufficient for examination requirements as they now stand, a position in which they are tacitly fortified by the attitude of persons who argue that the teacher fresh from school is better qualified to instruct, because he has the textbook at his finger-tips and a mind unsullied by the taint of extraneous ideas. Just now we are very sorely in need of ideas, and it is on the capacity for ideas that I would base the "*je ne sais quoi*."

Let us consider the objective of the first two years' teaching of French. Out of our class of, say 40 beginners, assume that as many as 20 will eventually matriculate—that is probably a high estimate—and that 20 will leave school after two years of the course. The problem is then to provide something for the half-timers, while at the same time interfering as little as possible with the routine progress that is a necessary part of examination work. It will, I think, be admitted that in two years there is little hope of teaching children to read even simple French with fluency, unless we are to devote all our attention to that object, to the exclusion of the writing knowledge at present demanded by the syllabus. And even then one would not be too confident of success. We can offer something to these two-year or one-year students by making our early teaching so broad as to develop an attitude of mind towards language in general; we must cultivate the *habit of observation*, that will later take note of variations in sound and vocabulary and probably result in speech-consciousness and act as a salutary check to the over-rapidity of speech-development on this continent. It may be that this is not an American, but a 20th century, acceleration.

This matter of speech is already one that commands widespread interest. The imitation of dialect is a recognized form of humor, and peculiarities of utterance play no small part in determining our first impressions of people.

We dislike our neighbor before we know him for a number of different reasons—because he takes a bath in the morning, because he does not take a bath in the morning, because he eats other food than we and that at unseasonable hours, because we consider his clothes to be affected or vulgar, and so on through the list of autocratic and democratic intolerances, major and minor; and prominent among them is the intolerance arising from difference of

speech, whether it be the mutual distrust of two languages in the same country, or the minor discord produced by variant utterance of the same language. In fact this influence is sometimes so strong that persons have been known to feel an almost physical pain on hearing a form of English that is unfamiliar to them, and that they feel instinctively to be wrong, even though this instinct may be wholly erroneous. For instance, the clear vocalization and accurate consonants of educated southern English produce an unpleasant irritation in the mind of an uneducated American—using the word in the continental sense. I once heard a boy say to a colleague of mine in a Canadian school: “I hate the sound of your high-pressure English.” And it was true, though perhaps among the things that might be more delicately expressed. Contrariwise, the cultivated American knows very well that this same clarity and this accuracy are the canons of all speech; while it is certain vowel deformations and mannerisms that make what is known as “an English accent,” a term highly annoying to the English themselves. None the less it exists.

It would be tempting to follow this path of digression, but the theme is foreign to our discussion, and I want merely to make the point that language is in itself a thing of universal interest, and then examine how we can handle our elementary French teaching in a manner to introduce the broader aspect of language, and enquire what are the special qualifications of the teacher for that purpose.

Well, the first and simplest lessons will be directed to the general question. You are doubtless familiar with Jespersen's excellent sketch of an introductory language lesson. With no technicalities whatever, he induces his pupils to examine for themselves the muscular movements involved in the production of simple sounds in their own language. Here is the first step, the knowledge that the vocal organs are an instrument that can be controlled as one controls the strings of a violin. This knowledge is directly applicable to the immediate work in French, and at the same time opens up a field of constant observation in pupils' daily speech. One does not, of course, expect to produce a class of phonetic prodigies—phonetic prigs they would be; but I think we might claim to be giving to the minority that will eventually think—a small minority, according to the pessimists—the foundation of a scientific method.

Obviously, our later teaching can only touch lightly and occasionally on the question of native speech, but it can and must use it with some frequency.

Here are a few suggestions as to the manner in which general knowledge and a faculty of observation can be brought to bear on the study of elementary French. They are concerned with vocabulary.

### *Vocabulary.*

Ex. 1. Crayon, plume, connect directly with the same words in English. The general lesson lies in the limitations that some words acquire, though this is perhaps too advanced a notion for beginners. The teacher should have it always in mind in his own reading.

*Table.*—We may present the basic idea of a *board* and expand to table, tableau, tablette.

*Porte* is susceptible to similar treatment.

To take a few more examples at random: *La clef* will suggest *clef* in music, *gant* is *gauntlet*, *madame* can be divided into its component parts, *ville* presented as a component of *Brockville*, etc.

### *Pronunciation.*

The teacher would deal in simple terms with syllabication, the weakening of consonants, syncopation, length and variation of vowels. As an example, it would be easy to contrast the French *particulièrement* with the syncopated English *p'tic'ly*, so often heard in careless speech. Such discussion would result in a clearer understanding of both French and English pronunciation.

Perhaps I am carrying coals to Newcastle in making these rather obvious suggestions, but my impression is that many teachers are afraid to use the time for what looks like digression. It is not digression. Regarded from the narrowest pedagogical viewpoint, such discussion is a valuable fixing exercise, while, if we consider it apart from the teaching of French, an object which our working conditions render very doubtful of attainment for half our pupils, I maintain that we are correlating the study of French and Latin, laying the foundations of observation habits, not for language alone, but for life in general. It is this observational side of language teaching that must be kept specially in view for the school-girl, now that Ontario has admitted women to the ballot. In

general, girls leaving school at fifteen or sixteen will have had little training in scientific method, and it becomes an even more important duty to us teachers to see that the women voters develop their capacity to put two and two together and examine for themselves the things that on the surface appear incomprehensible.

Feminine intuition does wonders, but without the habit of examination it is apt to confuse machinery with magic. If this is not so, why are husbands or plumbers so often called upon to replace tap-washers, while wives achieve far more complicated operations on sewing-machines.

To return to the "*je ne sais quoi*." What is the special qualification or capacity that will aid the teacher in establishing this inquisitive and acquisitive habit of mind? Obviously, the teacher must possess it to a high degree himself, and further, he must be trained to apply it scientifically to linguistic phenomena. I believe that such training is best acquired by three related studies: (i) a sound basis of Latin, with a wide vocabulary; (ii) a fundamental but not necessarily extensive knowledge of Old French phonology; and (iii) some training in practical phonetics.

Incidentally, this leads us to inquire whether Latin and French would not be a more practical grouping of Specialist subjects; they are allied by nature, and each would aid the teacher's comprehension and command of the other. If Spanish ever becomes a High School subject, it seems probable that the surviving remnants of German teaching will be handed over to the English specialists.

We are now in a position to summarize the qualities that go to make up the "*je ne sais quoi*" of language teaching—the qualities that must be present if the teacher is to reap the full reward of his labors.

He must be a student of language, with an ear attuned to catch the delicate variations of sound in the speech he hears about him, and indeed in his own speech. It goes without saying that he should speak his native tongue without defects of utterance—nasalization for instance—and without glaring provincialisms of pronunciation. If he knows enough of English to distinguish the many archaisms and Americanisms with which current Canadian speech abounds, he has one more means of making the language lesson interesting and one more object on which his own faculty of



observation may exercise itself. Since his profession is the teaching of French, it is his duty to read, write, speak, and think French at every possible opportunity, to make himself familiar with French achievements and French ways of thought; in short, to create a French atmosphere in his own mind. If this be ever so little the case, he cannot fail to diffuse an influence in the classroom, and his teaching will suggest that the affair in hand is more than the substitution of one set of symbols for another, as a mathematician might state the same equation indifferently in  $a, b, c$ , or  $p, q, r$ .

For our ideal teacher, language is a living and growing organism; he will, as it were, botanize in language, and will let his class see him do it, in the hope that they will try to imitate his attitude. For him the text-book is a guide and summary, but not the sum-total of all that need be taught; and his class will come to look on the text-book in the same light. This is important. How often does one hear book-fed children dismiss with a prompt and mildly vexed, "We haven't had that," some simple French word that a moment's thought would enable them to guess, while others whose language sense has been awakened will recognize difficult words by comparison with their English vocabulary.

Finally, he will be a master of method, knowing the ways of Gouin and Berlitz, and the Reform teachers, and the grammar-methodists, and the translationites, and the anti-translationites, and the free-compositioners, and the oral-compositioners, understanding the theories of visual and phonetic instruction, and all the other theories and practices, esteeming and despising them all by turns or together, selecting here a little and there a little, and combining the dose with that subtle and delicate something which is the "*je ne sais quoi*" of teaching.

*SUMMER SCHOOLS IN FRENCH.*

MISS C. C. GRANT, B.A.

It is not too strong a statement to make, to say that the majority of the Modern Language teachers in the Province of Ontario have no opportunity to speak with French people or hear French spoken outside of the classroom. The same may be said of the students in our Secondary Schools. The latter fact, however, though it is to be deplored, does not come within the scope of this paper. But it is of vital importance to the teacher that he freshen up his knowledge of French from year to year, for there is bound to be deterioration in one's own French, if the only French ever heard or spoken is the French of the schoolroom. Even if the best methods are employed, any and every method will fail if it has not under it the firm basis of a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught. We teach the Classics for the mental culture such a study involves; but in addition to its value as a culture study, French is taught for its usefulness. In these days a knowledge of French means not only a thorough knowledge of the written language, but ability to understand the spoken language and to converse in French fluently and correctly.

Conditions before the war were more favorable to intercourse with French people, but since then, however much we admire the patriotic fervor that has called home to France the brave sons and daughters of our noble ally, we feel the loss of their presence in this country from a linguistic standpoint. Continental travel, too, is now prohibited. Formerly it was possible to spend six or eight weeks of the summer holidays in France, but now such a thing is out of the question. Of course this state of things is merely transitory, and after the war conditions will be normal again; but it serves to make us appreciate the privileges that were once ours, and may be again.

Attendance at a summer school in French is possible, however, without going out of the Province, as a course was offered last year in the University of Toronto, and I believe that Queen's University also has summer courses in French. The Scottish and English Boards of Education appreciate what it means to their teachers to attend

a summer school, in France, to such an extent that they pay the travelling expenses of those teachers who are willing to attend, and who present a certificate of attendance. The Teachers' Guilds of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Scottish Education Department, have arranged holiday courses in France for their teachers, and have done all in their power to encourage their teachers to attend. Canadians in small numbers have attended such courses, especially those under the patronage of the Alliance Française, but always at their own expense. In Canada, Montreal has been foremost in offering holiday courses to those interested in the study of the French language. Not every year have these courses been offered, but from time to time they have appeared.

I attended one of these courses under the patronage of the Alliance Française in the year 1910, and it was an inspiration to live for six weeks in a French atmosphere. The surroundings were as thoroughly French as it could be possible under existing circumstances to make them. The attendance was exceptionally large, students attending from all parts of Canada, as well as from New York, Boston, Buffalo, St. Paul, and other places in the United States. The ladies were all domiciled under the one roof, Donalda Hall being placed at our disposal, and we did not have to leave the building, even for meals or lectures. The men had rooms in the Y.M.C.A. and other residences. Meals were served in the large dining-room, and our classrooms opened off the adjacent corridors. It was an ideal building for such a course, with its large Common Room and numerous small study rooms and beautiful gardens, with McGill University only a stone's throw away.

The use of any other language than French was strictly prohibited in the house, and even when strolling around the city, sightseeing, the students were supposed to converse in French. The course consisted of an elementary and an advanced course. The advanced provided for lectures in French literature and history, while the elementary was eminently practical, consisting of periods in French conversation, reading, composition, and phonetics. It was the latter course that I attended. The mornings were devoted to lectures while the afternoons were free, except for small groups of five or six, who met for conversation under the guidance of special instructors, Parisian ladies who were living in Montreal. At the close of the course examinations were held and certificates

presented to the successful candidates. In the afternoons, also, excursions were made to different points of interest in the city, and sight-seeing is especially interesting in Montreal, a city so rich in historical associations. Homes containing beautiful collections of pictures were thrown open to the students, and it was a rare treat to visit these art galleries, accompanied by a competent art critic, who explained the beauties of the paintings representing the different schools of art. The evenings were devoted to lectures, study or illustrated addresses in French. At that time "Chantecler" was at the height of its popularity, and some of the evenings were spent in reading and discussing that play by Rostand. A whole day was devoted occasionally to visiting some point of interest at some distance from the city. One day we spent at Macdonald College, and another on the St. Lawrence River, taking a trip to the Rapids and back again. Everything was done to make our stay in Montreal pleasant and profitable.

Professor Walter had charge of the Phonetics, and a more thorough and painstaking teacher it would be hard to find. The word or sentence to be pronounced would go all round the classroom, and each student had to try to pronounce it correctly. I remember the morning the letter "p" was the subject of discussion. We did not all succeed in pronouncing it correctly, but Professor Walter's patience was inexhaustible, and his explanations of how this letter should be pronounced all that could be desired. As a text-book we used Dumville's "Elements of French Pronunciation and Diction," the same book used in the University of Toronto. From year to year the importance of the study of Phonetics is being realized more and more. Just before the war broke out, I was spending the winter in Paris, and attended the first course of lectures in French Phonetics ever given in the Sorbonne. They were delivered by M. Camerlynck, and as a text-book we used "Les sons du Français" by Paul Passy, and "Lectures Phonétiques" by Mlle C. Motte (Mrs. Daniel Jones). The course was attended by foreigners from different countries. It was an interesting study in comparative phonetics when M. Camerlynck would ask first an American, then an Englishman, a German, a Russian, a Japanese, or Chinese to pronounce in succession the same word, and hear the variations in pronunciation. An exercise of that kind shows how important the study of Phonetics is to acquire the correct pronounci-



ation of French. Mere imitation, unless one lives for years in the country, only results in an approximation to the sound. Whereas, if a study of the position of the vocal organs is made, the sound can be made more accurately and correctly. I found the course of lectures given by M. Camerlynck exceedingly interesting and helpful. Much as I should have liked to attend the summer course of the Alliance Française in Paris, it was impossible, as I was leaving France about the middle of July. When I left Paris the Serbian question was in everyone's mouth, though war was not expected. Two weeks later the war dogs were let loose, and since that time not only the Continent of Europe, but the whole world, has been forced to take part in a war for freedom, the like of which the world has never seen before, and it is to be hoped will never see again. Students and travellers thought themselves lucky to get safely out of the belligerent countries, and studies were forgotten in the vital struggle for mere existence.

For some years the Dominion of Canada has been singularly alive to the necessity of raising the standard of the teaching profession, and of making the teacher more efficient. In all the Provinces of the Dominion summer schools are an established institution. Summer schools in French have been established in British Columbia, Manitoba, Quebec and Ontario. The attendance at these schools is entirely voluntary, it being expected, however, that progressive teachers will wish to improve their efficiency by extending their knowledge of the subjects they are teaching. In Montreal, last year, the teachers were encouraged to attend the course held in July by being offered bursaries of \$25.00 if they were successful in passing the special tests given; and besides that, the Protestant School Commissioners of Montreal gave a bonus of \$15.00 to the teachers in their employ who completed the course successfully. For the first time, last summer, a summer school was held in connection with the Education Department and the University of Toronto for teachers who wished to become more efficient in French pronunciation and to acquire more fluency in conversation, and to appreciate characteristics, institutions, history, art and literature of the French people. The course was free to all teachers of French in the Province of Ontario, and the enthusiasm and ready response of the teachers was such as to show that they thoroughly appreciated the efforts of the Education Department

and University of Toronto to raise their efficiency. There were students not only from Ontario, but from Alberta, British Columbia and other points in Canada. The course was held in the University of Toronto and in the University High School, about ten minutes' walk from the University. The lectures were entirely in French, except the lectures on Phonetics and on Methods. To give as much individual attention as possible to the students, and to make the lectures profitable, the class was divided into two sections for conversation and reading, mainly on the student's ability to understand and speak French, though all the lectures were open to the students if they wished to attend.

Lectures began every morning at eight o'clock with Phonetics, taken up by Professor Cameron. If we were not thorough believers in the usefulness of Phonetics in teaching French before, I am sure we should be after hearing Professor Cameron's lectures. After an explanation of the different parts of the vocal organs by means of which sound is produced, the symbols and the sounds they represented were explained. Then came practical drill from Dumville's "Elements of French Pronunciation and Diction"; and it was not long before we were writing to dictation, using the phonetic symbols. This last year I have become convinced of the usefulness of the so-called triangle in teaching the sound of the vowels, and for rapid review and drill work in pronunciation. The triangle, with its eight fundamental vowels, may be easily presented to a First Form class.

We are especially indebted to Mr. Cameron for a wider vision and "glimpses on the other side of the mountains." We took down the name of many a book we should like to have in the school library, and lists of school helps. But I have been very modest in asking for supplies. I asked for a set of Rippmann's French Picture Vocabulary for a class of thirty-five, and a set of Dent's "Wall Pictures of the Four Seasons." They have not come yet, but I expect I'll get them before the end of June. Several members of the class subscribed for "*Les Annales*," a paper that comes weekly. It is an excellent paper for supplementary reading in the Middle and Upper Schools, and interests the pupils in the life of the French people and in their country.

The second hour every morning was a treat indeed, when M. de Champ delivered a course of lectures on the History,

Geography, Institutions, Art and Literature of his native land. We were enabled to understand better the beautiful country of France, with its varied climate and many peoples, all united under the tri-color banner.

For the rest of the morning the class was divided into sections, Professor Cameron taking one section while M. de Champ had the other. The conversation period was particularly interesting. We found M. de Champ to be a past master in the art of conducting conversation. Anyone who has tried to conduct a lesson in French conversation in a class of from thirty-five to forty beginners in Form 1, knows how difficult a thing it is. The material for conversation was based on pictures showing many phases of French life. The interest was maintained not by the subject matter of the pictures themselves but by entering into many by-paths suggested by them, and where the wonderful fund of information of M. de Champ about all things French was at our disposal. Two hours every afternoon were devoted to conversation, the groups consisting of ten or twelve persons. During the reading periods we read a modern French play.

Mr. Ferguson was the lecturer on Methods, and the Direct Method came in for a great deal of discussion. For those interested in the method as worked out by schools in England, the names of many books were given. Valuable hints were given as to the best means of studying the French verbs. It was unfortunate that these lectures took place at some minutes' walk from the University, and from twelve to one, the hottest part of the day. Some days the heat was so excessive that the lectures were cancelled.

For outside reading we had the use of the Library of the University, where we had the opportunity of dipping into some of the works of the authors of the present day, mentioned in the lectures.

The announcement that the Department of Education is arranging for another summer school in French for July will be received with enthusiasm, and those teachers who spend part of their vacation in increasing their efficiency will find that:

“Rest is not quitting  
The busy career;  
Rest is the fitting . .  
Of self to one’s sphere.

“ ’Tis the brook’s motion,  
Clear, without strife,  
Fleeting to ocean  
After this life.

“ ’Tis loving and serving  
The highest and best;  
’Tis onward, unswerving,  
And this is true rest.”

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## GASPARD.

SAINT-ELME DE CHAMP, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

De tous les livres publiés depuis le commencement de la guerre, *Gaspard*, dont je vais vous parler, est celui qui a obtenu le plus de succès. Des centaines de milliers d'exemplaires en ont été vendus, il a été traduit en plusieurs langues. L'Académie Goncourt lui a décerné son prix annuel.

De son auteur, je ne sais presque rien. Il s'appelle René Benjamin, il n'est pas soldat de profession. Il a été mobilisé donc il n'est pas très vieux, de 35 à 40 ans peut-être. Ses fonctions militaires l'ont appelé en divers points de la France depuis le début des hostilités. Avant la guerre, il avait écrit deux ou trois livres qui avaient attiré l'attention par leurs qualités de fine observation, leur ironie pas trop méchante. (Les Justices de paix. L'Hôtel des Ventes.)

La popularité immédiate de *Gaspard* est due à n'en pas douter au réalisme intense qui règne d'un bout à l'autre de l'ouvrage. Dans les temps où nous vivons, il n'est personne en France qui n'ait assisté à quelques scènes semblables à celles décrites par M. René Benjamin. On lui sait gré de les avoir fixées, pour ainsi dire, en des phrases colorées et vivantes, et cette espèce de contrôle satisfait que chacun est à même d'exercer sur un ou plusieurs détails nous est une garantie de la sincérité du tout.

Gaspard, naturellement, est le principal personnage, toujours en scène; les autres ne sont là que pour le mettre en lumière et lui donner occasion de montrer en détail ses défauts et ses très précieuses qualités.

Dégourdi, débrouillard, indépendant, frondeur, gai, farce, bruyant, grognant, plastronnant, d'une bravoure inconsciente et têtue, il s'en va, égrenant, au long de ces trois cents pages, en la langue verte et épicée du peuple de Paris, ses récriminations, ses avis, son enthousiasme, intermittent mais jamais éloigné, toujours à fleur de peau, flamme pure que la brise la plus légère ranime et transforme en foyer ardent. Et sa terrible blague à jet continu cache un cœur si bon, si humain, si tendre, si fidèle dans ses amitiés

que non seulement Gaspard nous est sympathique dès le début mais jusqu'à la dernière page, nous l'aimons malgré ses incartades comme un ami de toujours. Beaucoup de ses mots drôles ou sublimes qui foisonnent d'un bout à l'autre du volume, demeureront.

Gaspard est parisien, un vrai Parigot de la rue de la Gaîté. La mobilisation le surprend exerçant la profession de marchand d'escargots. Ce métier le fait vivre modestement en compagnie de sa mère, de son fils et de Bibiche qui est sa femme devant l'Eternel peut-être, mais non aux yeux de la loi. Combien de ménages Gaspard existaient en France avant la guerre vivant ainsi, suivant la jolie expression russe, "en libre grâce." Gens d'une grande honnêteté, simples, bons, s'aimant peut-être davantage et plus fidèlement que beaucoup d'époux dont la cohabitation a été régulièrement autorisée par M. le Maire, et bénie par un ministre de Dieu. Ecoutez Gaspard parler de sa Bibiche et de son mioche, et vous serez convaincus.

La mobilisation arrache notre héros à la vie civile et nous le trouvons pendant la première semaine d'août dans une petite ville de Normandie où son régiment se forme pour aller au front. La description de l'état d'âme de la modeste cité en un tel moment est d'une obsédante vérité pour nous qui avons vécu ces heures angoissantes. Déjà Gaspard domine la situation, il n'est rien qu'un simple fantassin de deuxième classe et pourtant il est le majordome et le boute-en-train de la compagnie. Son capitaine, pour lequel il a le dévouement d'un chien fidèle lui confie, à lui l'homme débrouillard, les tâches les plus ardues. Riant, plaisantant, blaguant il s'en tire à merveille. J'ai oublié de vous le présenter au physique; considérez ce portrait si joliment dessiné: "Ce Gaspard était grand, comme il faut l'être pour faire la nique aux petits et se mesurer avec les autres. Des mains d'homme qui ne travaillent pas avec la tête, mais une tête à savoir se servir de ses mains. Lèvres humides, œil fureteur, cheveux rebelles, un brin de moustache satisfaite et surtout un nez comique, un long nez tordu mais honnête, ne reniflant que d'une narine mais de la bonne, si bien qu'il semblait que c'était le front curieux et remuant qui laissait pendre ce nez à gauche, pour pêcher dans le cœur, des idées et des mots." . . .

Et l'exode commence; le train part emportant le régiment vers la frontière. On y arrive. Marche de nuit, fatigue extrême. Gaspard est de mauvaise humeur. Un mot de son capitaine et le voilà de nouveau d'aplomb. Un type aussi ce capitaine, tout occupé

du bien-être de ses hommes, adoré d'eux, brave, peu parleur : chef précieux.

Et l'on va, l'on va toujours vers l'ennemi.

Gaspard n'aime pas les prêtres, ce qui, en d'autres termes, veut dire que ses sentiments religieux sont nuls, comme chez tant de ses concitoyens. Il ne perd donc jamais une occasion de taper sur "les curés." Mais voilà que la rencontre d'un prêtre lorrain patriote, brave homme et généreux vient modifier singulièrement sa manière de voir. "Pour un curé ça c't'un curé" s'exclame-t-il. Il n'en revient pas. Une heure après il en parle encore : "Moi, j'en ai connu des curés, mais des curés comme ce curé là, ça, il m'en bouche une surface." Et plus loin encore : "J'dis que c'e'curé-là c'est du prêtre, c'est pas de la saloperie."

Et la marche continue de jour et de nuit, écrasante, abrutissante, Après quinze heures, Gaspard "la gorge sèche et les pieds en compote, sentit sa fatigue plus forte que sa verve. Alors, il commença à grogner." Il récrimine contre l'Etat-Major et menace de tout lâcher. Sous la déprimante lassitude tous les hommes en sont là. Mais le brave capitaine Puche a entendu. Il connaît son Gaspard et sa pointe d'orgueil ; aussi, à cet éreinté, propose-t-il tout simplement de devancer la colonne et d'aller préparer la soupe à dix kilomètres de là. Plein de fierté d'être ainsi choisi entre tous, notre homme oublie fatigue et griefs. Tout guilleret, il accomplit de façon parfaite la tâche à lui confiée.

Aussitôt la soupe avalée, l'invraisemblable randonnée se poursuit, les grondements du canon se font plus distincts, on grimpe vers une crête. "Qu'est-ce que le régiment allait voir de là-haut ? Grand dieu ! il vit . . . ah ! les cœurs se serrèrent et presque s'arrêtèrent . . . car brusquement, le régiment venait d'avoir la première vision poignante de la guerre : l'horizon tout en flammes . . . Puis, en avançant toujours, les yeux rivés sur cet immense spectacle d'horreur on commença de croiser la file interminable et lugubre de tous ceux qui se sauvaient, bêtes et gens. . . ."

Sans trêve, les lieues succèdent aux lieues. Depuis trente heures on ne s'est arrêté que pour manger. Les plus faibles commencent à s'échelonner sur la route. Le capitaine Puche toujours plein de sollicitude, a, une fois de plus, une idée de génie ; à un vieux paysan qui fuit il achète un tonneau de vin. "Vin mer-

veilleux; vin un peu chaud des derniers coteaux de France, qui coulait dans la poitrine de ces pauvres diables fourbus, donnant à leurs corps une poussée de joie. . . . Un quart de vin pour un homme éreinté, c'est le délassement, le bien-être, la langue émue, le cœur qui rebat et s'attendrit. . . . Le vin! Quelle splendeur et quelle puissance! Des hommes dont le moral est en loques, abattus, abrutis, il vous les transforme en une troupe nerveuse, éveillée et qui repart en chantant."

Puis c'est la bataille, le premier contact avec l'ennemi. Il y a là vingt pages qu'il faudrait citer en entier. Gaspard y est sublime et le milieu d'une angoissante vérité. Gaspard chargeant sous la mitraille, Gaspard secourant les blessés, Gaspard atteint lui-même, Gaspard faisant ses adieux à son copain Burette mourant; autant de scènes inoubliables. Si vrai aussi le désarroi de l'ambulance provisoire! Et ce train de blessés! oh! ce train! qui décrivant d'incroyables zigzags s'en va à pas de tortue jusqu'au fond des ecins les plus paisibles du pays porter les sanglantes preuves de la tuerie qui sévit dans l'est et empêche la marée dévastatrice de s'étendre jusqu'à eux.

Voici l'arrivée à l'hôpital de la petite ville, si tranquille, si "temps de paix." Là encore Gaspard fait la conquête de tout le monde. Bientôt convalescent, il se rend presque indispensable. Mais le voilà guéri, et de retour à son dépôt. Il va être renvoyé au front et a droit à un congé, pour aller voir sa famille. Il en profite pour épouser sa Bibiche et légitimer ainsi son gosse. Malheureusement, il n'a que trois jours à lui et la loi en demande cinq pour que le mariage puisse avoir lieu. Qu'à cela ne tienne, Gaspard s'octroie quarante-huit heures supplémentaires et devient le chef légal de sa petite famille. Seulement, une fois de retour à la caserne, c'est la prison; malgré toute sa sympathie pour lui, le brave capitaine Puche ne peut faire autrement que de punir notre homme car non seulement il est en retard de deux jours, mais encore l'incorrigible a trouvé moyen pendant sa permission d'avoir trois querelles avec des agents de l'autorité. Je vous ai dit qu'il est frondeur, batailleur et que, comme tout bon Parigot, il déteste la police. Une de ses joies d'aller à la guerre ne vient-elle pas de ce que "on va enfin pouvoir se cogner sans que les flics ils aient rien à voir?"

Done Gaspard repart pour le front sur sa demande. Il a de



nouveau un ami en la personne de Mousse, un brave garçon de professeur. Mais le front a changé en quelques mois; la guerre de mouvement sous l'éclatant soleil d'août s'est transformée en la hideuse lutte des tranchées, sous la pluie glacée, dans la boue. Guerre déprimante! Ecoutez et vous comprendrez pourquoi Gaspard se sentait l'âme trempée et ne trouvait pas d'autres mots pour exhaler sa peine que "Cré Bon Dieu."

"Avancer! on piétinait dans une pâte gluante, dont il fallait, à chaque pas, ressortir. Le pied glissait; la main s'agrippait aux parois: elle aussi s'enfonçait dans la boue. Le fusil tombait de l'épaule: la main boueuse le rattrapait et l'emplâtrait. En moins de cinq minutes, armes et vêtements, l'homme tout entier était empâté, englué, et ces cinquante soldats qui se suivaient à la file avec tant de peine, dans une crevasse de terre inégale et tortueuse, avaient l'air de lutter pour que le champ ne se refermât point sur eux. Des coudes, des pieds, des mains, des reins, de la tête, ils étaient comme des pétrisseurs de boue, enlisés puis se désenlisant, n'acceptant point d'être enterrés, geignant, pestant, se décollant et émergeant, hommes devenus taupes ou vers de terre dans une tombe où, vivants, ils rampaient, se racerochaient, bourbeux, fangeux, désespérés, mais volontaires." Et ceci sous la double ondée de l'eau du ciel et des marmites. . . . Le lendemain matin de leur arrivée à la tranchée, Mousse et Gaspard, chargeant l'ennemi, sont renversés par la même bombe, le premier mort, le second avec une jambe en moins. Après vingt-deux heures de front Gaspard reprenait le chemin de l'hôpital.

Nous le retrouvons béquillard mais nageant dans la joie, achevant sa convalescence dans une Normandie printanière, ensoleillée et fleurie. Il est de nouveau en possession de tout son bagout et de toute sa verve. Il est tout près de faire des infidélités à Bibiche, car elle a eu le tort de se lamenter sur la jambe disparue et il ne peut pas supporter ça; Bibiche le "poisse." Les choses semblent sur le point de ne pas tourner à l'honneur de notre homme et nous sommes en train de nous demander si notre sympathie qui s'ébroue le pourra suivre plus longtemps, quand un Américain, fabricant de jambes artificielles, ayant flairé en Gaspard le placier idéal, ramène la paix dans le ménage en offrant à notre fringant invalide une situation magnifique.

Gaspard restera, il a déjà pris sa place parmi les types qui

demeureront à jamais populaires en France parce qu'ils ont parlé à l'âme de l'humble comme à celle du lettré. C'est que, voyez-vous, Gaspard est bien de chez nous, il est dans la tradition gauloise. Il est l'ultime rejeton d'une lignée qui se perd dans les lointains du moyen âge et dont Rostand nous avait donné le dernier représentant. Parent pauvre de Cyrano quant au savoir, Gaspard lui ressemble comme un frère par le cœur et par l'esprit. Les trésors de tendresse et de pitié que cache sa verve étourdissante inspirent à ce Parigot de Montparno des mots et des gestes que le cadet de Gascogne n'eût point reniés malgré leur manque manifeste de préciosité. Oui, Gaspard survivra à l'atroce guerre et demeurera le prototype du poilu de 1914.

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*LA BONNE ENTENTE.*

PROFESSOR C. B. SISSONS, B.A., VICTORIA COLLEGE, TORONTO.

The Bonne Ententer is essentially a pacifist, and the Bonne Entente movement is a movement for a national peace—a national peace, wide, deep and eternal, based on righteousness withal.

The pacifist in these days needs excuse, or perhaps only definition. The other day a young man in khaki, now in Canada for nearly three years of war, was forcibly consigning pacifists to what he conceived to be their proper place. A friend who stood by, gently remonstrating, remarked that nearly all the men he knew fighting in France were pacifists. The difference in attitude between the bellicose young man and his friend was really not so serious as might appear. It was partly a matter of temperament, but mainly a matter of definition. The former regarded the pacifist as a man who believed in peace at any price; the latter, as a man who believed in peace, but peace based on righteousness. It is in the latter sense of the term that the Bonne Ententer is pacific.

Some months ago I was discussing the problem of Quebec with a gentleman of some education and a political past. He was sincere, I think, and wished his country well, but he concluded his conversation with an emphatic descent of his fist and the words: "Well, the next job to be done, when we get through with the Germans, is to clean up Quebec." Oh, one says, here was surely an ignorant fellow, who knew and loved his watchword better than he knew and loved his native land. Not so. He was, I repeat, a man of some education, and he was not one of those who delight to refresh themselves annually in the waters of the Boyne. In fact, he was a co-religionist of the majority in Quebec. Not once, nor twice, have I heard a similar opinion. Occasionally one may see something approaching it even in the press. That is why I joined the Bonne Entente.

When the Fathers of Confederation determined that Canada should be one, they did so in the faith that two peoples differing in race and language, and for the most part also in religion, could yet live together in harmony and with mutual benefit. That was fifty years ago. They saw the vision; they followed the gleam. Or was

it were a jack-o'-lantern that they followed? Was it destined to lead us into abysmal swamps, noisesome and inevitable? They framed a federation, believing that unity may be found in diversity, and that unified diversity has glorious possibilities of beauty and strength. Or was their creation merely a chimera? Was the lion—head, British enough, to be sure—to become attached in utter monstrosity to the goat and the serpent, thus destined to all eternity to breathe everlasting fire? Those who believe that the purpose of the Fathers of Confederation was high, that their vision was true, and their creation vital and vivifying, are worthy to be initiated into the mysteries of the *Bonne Entente*. Others may remain for a season without the temple.

But the faith that made Confederation, and that makes the *Bonne Entente*, is something more than the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things not seen. It is at once the result of and the incentive to the careful study of the facts of history. In the *Bonne Entente* we are always at school. First of all, we seek to know our own country, and especially that part of our own country inhabited by what Mr. Arthur Hawkes calls the "Senior Canadians." That is why the Ontario section of the *Bonne Entente* went on its famous pilgrimage to Quebec. Some of us may have had an unconscious feeling of superiority, a touch of that almost universal malady of pharisaism, and may have gone with an idea that we must wake Quebec up, that she, being less righteous, might gaze upon our superior holiness and thereby be transformed. If that feeling was present, deep-seated in any breast, it was quite overborne by the general desire of the pilgrims to understand—just to understand. It was believed if we could only attain the point of view of the Canadian of French origin, we might hope to solve the serious problems that seemed to confront us and threaten the very foundations of our young manhood.

Of these problems two stood out most prominently. The first was the failure of French-speaking citizens to respond to the call of Empire in as large numbers as Ontario folk considered proper. The second was the apparent desire on the part of Quebec to make French equal with English in every Province of the Dominion, and to insist on their own people, wherever they might live in Canada, putting the French language first. These were the two outstanding problems—that of recruiting and that of bilingual schools. The



members of the Bonne Entente delegation went to Quebec mainly in order to study these problems. But they went with open mind and outstretched hand. A great deal depends on the temper of the inquirer. And in this case the investigation was accompanied by much good-fellowship. Hospitality was cordial and free, but that was simply in order that a proper atmosphere might be created for the frank and fearless discussion of the matters in question. This junketing became the butt of certain editorial jibes, for there is a species of mankind which thinks the most suitable place for settling points of difference to be the roped platform, not the banquet-table. On the contrary, we held that the banquet-table is the ideal place for discussion, the roped platform to be used, if at all, only as a last resort.

As to the problem of recruiting, we learned many things. It is possible to give five good reasons to account for the lack of response to the appeals in Quebec, only one of which can, in any sense, be construed as a reflection on the intelligence or the patriotism of the "senior Canadians." But it is not my purpose at this time to discuss this aspect of the work of the Bonne Entente. It is sufficient to say that one of the most prominent of the so-called Nationalist group of able young Frenchmen, a man whose command of English would shame most of us assembled in this Association, publicly at our first banquet professed his willingness to fall in line in case the majority of the Canadian people favored conscription. He will doubtless be present at the great Win-the-War Convention, shortly to be held in Montreal, a convention for whose organization Mr. John M. Godfrey, the Ontario Chairman of the Bonne Entente, is, more than any other man, responsible. One great result of the Bonne Entente movement, then, has been the clearing up of some of the obstacles in the way of Canada's presenting a united front to Prussian ambition.

The second problem, that of the place of French in Ontario (and other Canadian) schools, may more appropriately be discussed in this Section. I think it was the intention of your Secretary, himself an ardent and extremely popular pilgrim, that it should be discussed in this paper. Not the least of the good effects of the movement has been the lifting of the bilingual controversy above the mists of passion and prejudice which commonly envelop it. And especially in discussing a problem of race and language, and, to a

lesser degree, of religion, a spirit of tolerance and a well-informed mind are imperatively necessary.

There are three crucial questions to be considered by the Canadian who wishes to think and vote intelligently on this question. The *first* of these is the extent of the legal or moral right of the French to the use and study of their own language in the schools outside Quebec. The *second* is that of efficiency—the question as to whether a one-roomed school (taking the most usual and most difficult situation) can ever be expected to give efficient instruction in English and the other branches of study in case a knowledge of both French and English is desired.

*Thirdly*, we have the question, not by any means unimportant from the pedagogical point of view,—and now, since the decision of the Privy Council, the question is largely one of pedagogy,—that of the best means of ensuring for French children a thorough knowledge of English. These three crucial questions—that of *right*, that of *efficiency*, and that of *method*, have seldom been discussed with candor and thoroughness. It is safe to say that they are understood by few of those who so glibly express opinions upon bilingual schools.

Perhaps the spirit and purpose of the *Bonne Entente* cannot be illustrated by me this morning in a better way than by an excursion into a little corner of our own history, perhaps not familiar to many of you. Having taken this excursion, we shall be in a better position to discuss the question of any legal or moral claim to consideration the French language may have in the schools of Ontario. The question of the efficiency of a properly conducted bilingual school, and the question of the best method of teaching two languages in any school, though most appropriate for discussion in this Modern Language Section, must be passed over. We shall be content in this paper to review an incident of great historic importance as affecting the rights of the French language in Ontario, which has not received the attention it merits.

On April 9th, 1851, a memorial was addressed to the Board of Public Instruction of the County of Essex. It was signed by seventeen inhabitants of the school section, all with French names. So far as I have been able to ascertain, it is the first document of importance bearing on the bilingual question in Ontario. The memorial reads as follows:

“The Memorial of the inhabitants of School Section Number 6, in the Township of Sandwich, in the County of Essex,

“Respectfully represents:

“That your memorialists, considering the urgent necessity to forward elementary education in their school section, as well as in their township, as far as is in their power, are deeply affected and grieved to perceive that their efforts for that purpose are thwarted and rendered useless by the system of instruction introduced into our school section, as well as in other sections of this township, and we are informed

“That a set of school teachers have been introduced (and one in particular in our section) who is far from being qualified to be a teacher, within the meaning of the Statute, and otherwise wholly incapable of giving our children a good and wholesome English education—he, the said teacher, named Gigou, a Frenchman newly arrived in this country, an alien utterly unacquainted with the principles of the English language, and less with the practice of it, having been appointed to teach our children. Your memorialists conceive that they have a right to have their children taught in English because they have discovered by experience that French instruction alone availeth them next to nothing at all, being an ornamental rather than a useful acquirement for the inhabitants of this country.

“Your memorialists would therefore entreat the Board to take their case into favorable consideration, and by proper investigation cause this great evil to disappear, which evil, if suffered, will throw us back considerably from our surrounding neighbors.

“Your memorialists therefore earnestly pray to afford them relief; and, as in duty bound, will we pray.

“(Signed)

JULIEN PARENT,

“(and sixteen others, with French names.)”

But there is always the other side. The counter-petition is dated April 14th. The three trustees of the section have subscribed their names, or rather Medart Gouin has subscribed his, and the two others have made their marks, being unable to write their names. There was nothing to indicate, by the way, that any of the memorialists did not sign their names, although certainty on this point is impossible, since, apparently, the original documents have

not been preserved. The points urged by the three trustees, two of them illiterate, are as follows:

"1. The district is one of the least of the country, both in the number of the children and in the state of the fortunes of the parents.

"2. The district is composed of families who speak nothing but French.

"3. For many years it had tried, without success, to have a school. Last year a resident of the place offered to teach French and English. He was unable to get together enough children to make it worth while to give lessons. The grant accordingly was lost, to the great regret of the fathers of families.

"4. The section, after repeated attempts, was unable to find a single master speaking the two languages.

"5. Mr. Gigou, a respectable man, speaking only French, came forward and we placed him in the school, with the permission of the local Superintendent, on the understanding that he was to undergo an examination in French when the Board met, two months later. No sooner had he taken up his duties than forty children entered the school, to the great satisfaction of the parents and of ourselves, who finally see our deepest wishes realized. To-day examination was refused the master because of the clause which demands knowledge of English."

The petition then concludes with this appeal "We ask the authorities that we be permitted to keep our good master, although he is not qualified for the English language.

"If your reply is not favorable, we shall again be without a school, in spite of which we are paying the taxes, while our children remain and grow up in ignorance.

"We hope, Mr. Superintendent, that you will be good enough not to abandon to a sad lot the part of the country which we represent."

On April 12th, S. J. MacDonell, Secretary of the Board of Public Instruction for Essex, refers the matter to the consideration of the Toronto authorities. After pointing out that the majority of the inhabitants of the Township of Sandwich are French-Canadian, and that most of the schools are conducted in French, he states:



"Of the candidates presenting themselves before the Board of Public Instruction and belonging to the Township of Sandwich, there has not hitherto been anyone who did not possess, at all events in some degree, a knowledge of the English language.

"Mr. Gigou, who came before the Board to-day, is entirely ignorant of it, and upon reference to the programme of examination prescribed by the Council of Public Instruction, the Board of Examiners felt constrained to refuse to grant at present a certificate of qualification.

"As, however, it might be urged on behalf of Mr. Gigou that in this part of Upper Canada, in the midst of a French community, the programme of examination should not be strictly adhered to, and that there would be an injustice in debarring a teacher from desiring a participation in the Government appropriation of moneys for schools because, although capable of imparting the elements of a good education, he conveys instruction only in the French language, the language of the pupils who attend his school, the Board have deemed Mr. Gigou's case of sufficient importance to be submitted to the Chief Superintendent, as being decisive of the principle whether or not it is an essential toward the obtaining of Government support that teachers of common schools should deliver or be able to deliver their instruction in the English language.

"Previous to Mr. Gigou's appearance before the Board, a memorial . . . was presented to the Board, on behalf of some very respectable Canadian habitants of the school section in which Mr. Gigou is keeping school. I must mention to you, in connection with that memorial, that Mr. Gigou produced a proper certificate of having taken the oath of allegiance, and also a very excellent testimonial as to character and capability as a teacher from Monsieur Pere Point.

"Mr. Gigou stated that there were about fifty pupils attending the school, all of them very young, and all of whom spoke the French language."

Mr. P. McMullin, the local Superintendent, whose position corresponded to that of the County Inspector to-day, when forwarding the petition of the three Trustees, wrote a letter to the Superintendent of Education, in which he gave the additional information that objection was raised to Mr. Gigou by one of the

Examiners. He also stated that he saw nothing in the Act requiring that teachers must be acquainted with the English language. "There are several school sections in the township where the children cannot speak English, and it appears to me that a teacher who understands the English tongue would be of no use in such sections, as neither the pupil nor the teacher could understand each other. A teacher competent to teach English and French cannot be secured at all times."

Nine days later, on April 25th, 1851, a meeting of the Council of Public Instruction was held in Toronto, the Rev. Henry James Grasset, A.M., being in the chair, and three other members present, namely, James Scott Howard, Esq., the Rev. John Jennings and the Rev. Adam Lillie. In the absence of five members, one of them Dr. Ryerson, the Chief Superintendent of Education, then in England—though there is no reason to believe that he or any of the absent members would have disapproved—the Council ordered the following clause to be added to the programme setting forth the qualifications of teachers:

8. "In regard to teachers of French and German, that a knowledge of French or German grammar be substituted for a knowledge of English grammar, and that the certificate of the teacher be expressly limited accordingly."

It was further ordered that the above be communicated to the several County Boards of Public Instruction in Upper Canada, and on April 30th Mr. McMullin was informed that "there is nothing in the School Act to prevent the Board of Public Instruction for the County of Essex from granting a certificate of qualification to any persons upon passing the requisite examination, who shall have complied with the conditions contained in the second clause of the twenty-ninth section of the School Act.

"Mr. Gigou having complied with these conditions, as intimated in a letter I have received from the Secretary of the County Board, the Council of Public Instruction for Upper Canada has sanctioned a liberal construction of the programme for the examination and classification of teachers, making the term "English" convertible with the term "French," where it applies, and when applied to French candidates for the examination by the County Board. The certificate should, of course, be limited to teaching in the French language.

"The School Act expressly authorizes trustees to employ any qualified teacher they please. Should, therefore, Mr. Gigou obtain a certificate from the County Board, the Trustees can engage his services, and no Board or school officers can prevent them, as has been assumed in a memorial transmitted to me by the Secretary of the County Board from certain inhabitants of School Section Number 6, Sandwich."

The letter is signed by J. George Hodgins, Deputy to Superintendent of Education.

This same Section 8, which made "French" and "German" convertible with "English" in the programme of qualifications for teachers, was again formally adopted on December 17, 1858, eight members of the Council being present, among them the Chief Superintendent, and again in 1871, so that no doubt can exist as to the attitude of the then educational authorities of the Province as to the position of French in the schools. The fact must be recognized that sixty-five years ago a teacher unfamiliar with the English language secured a certificate on the definite decision of the Council of Public Instruction. Its decision was arrived at almost certainly on what it believed to be the merits of the case. The members of the Council were not dependent on the suffrages of the people, "though subject to all lawful orders and directions issued by the Governor." The Chief Superintendent of Education, who was directly responsible to the Governor, served as a connecting link between it and the Government of the day; but the educational administration of Upper Canada was not yet organized as a department. At any rate, the Council saw fit to instruct the various County Examining Boards throughout the Province that in future a knowledge of French or of German grammar should be accepted in lieu of a knowledge of English grammar in prospective teachers.

Thus was staged the first act in the Ontario language drama, the denouement of which we have not yet seen. But from this first act almost all the personages who are still on the stage are, in type, presented to us.

First, we have the local Trustees, with large powers and lean purses. They are anxious to have a French-speaking teacher in charge of their school, and emphasize the difficulty, with their limited means, of securing one competent to teach both English and French. They readily accept a teacher who reads only French,

and who has the support of the parish priest. They place him in the school, and trust that their story will secure a certificate for him. Their own education is modest, and they are content with modest qualifications for their teacher. Opposed to them in hostile poise stand the minority in the school section. They are not sufficiently strong numerically to oust the reigning Trustees, but they feel they have a grievance, and they appeal to the County Board. They hold a knowledge of English to be indispensable, "French being an ornamental rather than a useful acquirement" for inhabitants of Canada. They are willing to subscribe their names to a protest, and thereby incur the hostility of their neighbors, and it may be, of the priest. The Local Superintendent, or Inspector, however, is less true to type. For one thing, he boasts an Irish name, and the Irish and French in these later days have been mixing about as comfortably as fire and water. He is clearly not a very close student of English himself, if one may judge from the sentence: "It appears to me a teacher who understands the English tongue would be of no use in such sections, as neither the teacher nor the pupil could understand each other." Apparently, he is trying to voice the sentiment that a teacher whose native speech is English would be useless as a teacher of children whose native speech is French. But this contention, so fundamental to the whole discussion, we cannot discuss. It is interesting to note that it is put forward by an official in the very first stage of the controversy.

The Council of Public Instruction, or Department of Education, also is hardly normal. There is no uncertainty or indefiniteness about its position. Of course, being like the Commissions of to-day, somewhat removed from the arena of politics, it was not compelled to consider the effect that its actions would have on various sections of the electorate. Realizing the very large powers conferred by the Act on local Boards of Trustees, it turned a deaf ear to the representations of the seventeen insurgents. But, more than that, it determined that the mere question of language should not stand in the way of any teacher. Clause 5 of the programme setting forth the very modest qualifications for third-class teachers, had read: "To know the elements of English grammar, and to be able to parse any easy sentence in prose." The addition of Clause 8, which made French or German convertible with English, removed the necessity of any knowledge whatever of English grammar on



the part of a teacher of Upper Canada. One of the duties of the County Board was "to adopt all lawful means in their power, as they may judge expedient, to advance the interests and usefulness of Common Schools." Believing that he was acting in conformity with his duties, one of the members of the Board had objected to Mr. Gigou as a teacher. The Board had recognized the force of his objection, and had refused the certificate pending a ruling by the Council as a higher authority. The ruling was given promptly and definitely. Its historical importance cannot be overestimated.

By this action, then, the Council of Public Instruction sanctioned the exclusive use of French in any of the schools of Upper Canada. In a letter, dated the 24th of April, 1857, and addressed to the School Trustees of Charlottenburgh, of the County of Glengarry, Dr. Ryerson sanctioned the use of both English and French in the same school, thereby giving the first recognition to the bilingual school. The letter runs:

"*Gentlemen*,—I have the honor to state, in reply to your letter of the 16th, that as the French is the recognized language of the country, as well as the English, it is quite proper and lawful for the trustees to allow both languages to be taught in their schools to children whose parents may desire them to learn both.

"I have the honor to be, gentlemen,

"Your obedient servant,

"E. RYERSON."

This last letter has frequently been quoted, and has been used by the lawyers on the French side in the costly litigation over Regulation 17. The correspondence of 1851, for some reason, has not been noticed or used in the courts. It may be that its suppression was due to the fact that it was not favorable to the extreme contention of either party. It would be comforting to the French to know that Dr. Ryerson and his associates were quite willing to stretch the qualifications for Third-Class teachers so as not to exclude a man entirely unfamiliar with English but it was not convenient to have it recalled that the first document bearing on the bilingual question in Ontario was a spirited protest from seventeen Canadians of French origin against the policy of introducing purely French teachers, whose qualifications had recommended them to the curé. Even less favorable, perhaps, was the correspondence to the position

of those who contended that French had no legal or even moral claim to consideration in the conduct or curricula of Ontario schools. Recently, for instance, I was surprised to hear the head of a department in the University of Toronto make the statement that French never had any rights in the Public Schools of the Province. He was supported by an associate professor, who claimed to be thoroughly familiar with the literature of the controversy. As a matter of fact, this is true neither of 1851 nor of 1917, nor of any time between the two dates, unless one adopts the fantastic position that all our laws and rights were made and conferred by the Quebec Act. It is true that Ontario has always been competent to legislate as it chose in the matter; but happily, it is also true that Ontario, neither now nor at any time in the past, has seen fit entirely to bar French from the schools.

However, while even University professors are misinformed, and while misunderstandings are hardening into bitterness, much useful missionary work may be done by the *Bonne Entente*, not less in Ontario than in Quebec. Mr. Chairman, I should covet the pleasure of moving, seconded by Professor Squair, that all members of this Section be initiated into the mysteries.

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*THE CLAIMS OF SPANISH IN OUR EDUCATIONAL  
SYSTEM.*

MILTON A. BUCHANAN.

The title of this paper was suggested to me by Professor Squair, Secretary of the Modern Language Section. He had probably heard that, prompted by my sense of duty, I had called attention to the anomalous position of Spanish in the curriculum of the University of Toronto, and that the Senate had, in its wisdom, restored Spanish as a General Course subject of the first year. The extraordinary popularity of Spanish at the present time in England and the United States, and the valid reasons for such popularity, have also prompted a demand for more favorable consideration of Spanish in the Modern Language course of our University, the only Canadian university in which provision is made for its study. This morning I have the honor of presenting to you some arguments for its claims to consideration in our general educational system, and I take it that it is my privilege to keep in mind not only the universities of this Province and of other Provinces of Canada, but also our Secondary Schools.

The best argument that can be advanced is a practical one: the place which the study of Spanish already holds in the curricula of other countries. If it can be shown that other countries, especially other English-speaking countries like Great Britain and the United States, are more mindful of their national needs, and that we are neglecting an opportunity in our educational system, I need not on the present occasion insist overmuch upon a whole series of reasons for urging the claims of Spanish in Canada.

Spanish, or Castilian, which has been deservedly called the "noblest daughter of Latin," because of the purity of its vowels, the richness of its vocabulary, and its stately, measured cadence, is probably the most extensively-spoken language in the world. Outside of Spain and the southern half of our American Continent, including large portions of New Mexico, Texas, and Southern California, it is spoken in Morocco (Oran) by about 100,000 people, by about the same number of Spanish-speaking Jews scattered throughout the Turkish Empire, and in the Philippines. The

Castilian language is used in 23 countries, with a population of 116 millions. On the American Continent, about as many people speak Spanish as English. Spanish and English are the only languages which have profited by the discovery of the New World. French is a possible exception to this generalization, but in Louisiana and the New England States, if not in Quebec, French has lost ground. From the Rio Grande to Cape Horn, except in Brazil, where Portuguese persists as French does in Quebec, Spanish absorbs all other languages, including English. Spanish is therefore destined to remain the language of the southern half of our continent. That of itself ought to make the study of this language of special interest to us in the northern half.

Spanish literature has for centuries made a strong appeal to the mind and the heart of English-speaking people. That rare combination of humor and realism that is never gross, is not alone characteristic of Cervantes, but is the distinctive quality of Spanish life, Spanish art, and Spanish letters. They have inspired memorable pages in Scott, Borrow, Washington Irving, Tieknor, and Prescott. In balladry Spain has hardly an equal; in the richness of striking proverbs, none. In the picaresque novel and *Don Quixote*, in the inimitable *Exemplary Novels* of Cervantes, Spain has taught the world of letters an interest in real life. In the drama, from the plays of Lope de Vega, Alarcon, Tirso de Molina to modern playwrights like Benavente, Quintero, Hermanos and others, it is no exaggeration to say that Spanish literature holds a unique position. Allow me to remind you that French comedy began, in 1643, with Corneille's *Le Menteur*, an adaptation of Alarcon's *La Verdad Sospechosa*, and French drama, in 1636, with *Le Cid*, an avowed adaptation of a Spanish original, Guillén de Castro's *Las Mocedades del Cid*. The excellent qualities of Spanish literature and the indebtedness of other literatures to that of the Peninsula are interesting topics for discussion, but further reference to them on this occasion would be an unpardonable digression.

Because of its constant endeavor to depict real life, and its skill in portraiture, Spanish painting is very highly esteemed. A modern artist like Sargent goes to Madrid on an annual pilgrimage to derive inspiration from the originals of Velázquez, hanging on the walls of the Museo del Prado. Living painters like Sorolla and Zuloaga cause a furore wherever and whenever their works are exhibited.



There is an individuality about Spanish art which makes it different from the art of any other country, and the difference lies not in sensational extravagance of fleeting interest.

In architecture and archaeology, Spain is a veritable museum of strong and beautiful creations. There are found side by side the masterpieces of civilization, the Roman, the Gothic, the Moorish. The exquisite decorations of the interior of the Alhambra and the Alcázar of Seville, with their delicately-wrought interlacing and figures, and the iridescent "*azulejos*," are of themselves a sufficient reward for an interest in Spain.

To the modern student Spain has further charms. The country is rich in libraries and archives. At Sismancas and at Seville exist such rare documents relating to America and in such abundance that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning now employs there a staff of scholars to copy and examine material of interest to historians. It is recognized in universities that for work in history, whether American or European, Spanish is a prerequisite.

I come now to more practical considerations. You have all read in your newspapers of the extraordinary interest in Spanish shown in England and the United States during the past few years; to be more explicit, since the outbreak of the war in Europe. A few years earlier, a chair of Spanish was established at the University of Liverpool. Within the past two years chairs have been founded at Leeds and at London. A well-known publishing house is authority for the statement that the number of Spanish text-books sold in England during the past year was three times greater than during the previous year. German is no longer studied to any considerable extent in British schools, partly because there are no native teachers available, but chiefly because of the antipathy to everything German. A subject that cannot be taught with enthusiasm is not worth teaching.

In the United States, where there is not that rigid organization in educational matters which frustrates progress in the Province of Ontario, Spanish has taken high schools, colleges and universities by storm. Until very recently, the people of the United States have not had the same outlet for their antipathy toward Germany that we in the countries at war have enjoyed. But they have had a weapon

that our young people have not been able to use. They have had the privilege of dropping the study of German, and they have done so. In its stead they have taken up the study of other languages, especially Spanish. When I learnt that there are nine men in the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York, who teach nothing but Spanish, and that their enrolment in Spanish is 1,234 students, I began to fear for my country, for there is a practical, commercial aspect to the matter, which has been even a greater factor than a sentimental one in this sudden popularity of Spanish in the United States.

Spanish has long been a popular study in the country of Washington Irving, Ticknor, and Prescott. Witness the fine Spanish collections of books and art in the Boston Public Library and the Hispanic Museum of New York, where a modern Medici, Archer M. Huntington, has gathered together treasures of priceless value, and has made them accessible to the general public. With the Spanish-American war and the acquisition of Spanish territory, came a new impulse to the study of Spanish and a very considerable increase in the number of students electing that subject. Chief interest still lay in the study of Spanish literature and history, and little or no attention was paid to South America. True, most of the new grammars that appeared made some effort to teach the rudiments of commercial correspondence, and some text-books were published which were wholly commercial in their appeal. Meanwhile Pan-American conferences and organizations, well endowed and enjoying support from many governments, were calling attention to the need of a better knowledge of South American affairs. The opening of the Panama Canal invited new efforts to develop trade with South America, and the enrolment in Spanish grew apace. Then came the European war, cutting off communications between Germany and South America, and disclosing to the United States and other countries new and vast commercial possibilities. The demand for a practical knowledge of the Spanish language has since grown so rapidly that schools and universities have found it impossible to cope with the situation. The University of Washington, with a staff of seven teachers of Spanish, was forced to turn away 200 students in the fall of 1916, for lack of instructors. At Harvard, there are this year 600 students in Spanish courses. At the University of Chicago, the attendance in this language has increased

threefold in eighteen months. The increase at the University of Michigan is typical: 1914, 110; 1915, 225; 1916, 450. Harvard University now accepts Spanish for matriculation, as do also the State authorities of New York.

So much for universities. The following letters will show what is taking place in the High Schools of the United States. The first is from Professor . . . . ., of the department of Romance Languages of Harvard University:

"I have no collected data to give you regarding the very obvious fact that Spanish has assumed enormous importance in the curriculum of the schools and academic institutions of the United States. So great was the demand for text-books this fall that firms publishing them found the editions exhausted before the classes were supplied. Everywhere over the country, except where the German population prevails, Spanish is supplanting German as the modern foreign language to be studied. Here at Harvard and Radcliffe College, we have about 600 students in the various Spanish courses. In the preparatory school (High and Latin School) of Cambridge alone, with a population of about 110,000, there are 800 pupils taking Spanish. The Institute of Technology, which hitherto has had hardly any instruction in Spanish, found itself confronted with a request for a course from 120 students. As you probably know, Harvard now accepts Spanish as an entrance examination subject."

The second letter which I shall read is from Mr. . . . . ., of the Central High School, Detroit, Michigan:

"We introduced Spanish in this High School some six or seven years ago, but were forced to discontinue it because of insufficient teaching force. Because of the demand, we introduced it again some four years ago, and now have two teachers with an enrolment of 236 pupils this year. The subject has increased in popularity, and would have a still larger number electing it, could we arrange to accommodate them. In our school,—and I think this is the experience in other High Schools and, to some extent, in colleges,—the popularity of Spanish has had the effect of decreasing the number of students electing French, and a marked effect on the number electing German."

The last letter, and I am only quoting typical letters, is from Mr. . . . . . of the Spanish Department of the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York:

"We have in our Spanish classes at present (December 11, 1916), 1,234 students in a school the attendance of which is about 5,000. There are nine men who teach nothing but Spanish. This is an academic High School. In the commercial High Schools of the city the numbers are larger. The Commercial High School of Brooklyn has nearly 2,000 in the Spanish courses. The High School of Commerce of Manhattan has probably 1,700. Spanish is now accepted by the State authorities on a par with French and German, year for year, for the College Entrance Diplomas granted by the State Regents. Cornell University has recently announced the acceptance of Spanish as one of the subjects that may be offered in the State scholarship examinations (for free scholarships of four years). French in our schools seems not to be affected by the increase in Spanish. German and Latin are . . . . ."

What, it may be asked, is Canada doing in the matter? Our universities, with the exception of the University of Toronto, have neglected Spanish entirely. At our Provincial University, the study of the language has suffered greatly from unfortunate restrictions, and Spanish will continue to hold an inferior position to German until a much-needed reform in the curriculum is effected. It ought to be possible to devise a programme in which French, the modern language par excellence, and especially in Canada, is given a preference, and in which Spanish is given second place. There have been sporadic appeals to our Department of Education to make provision for the study of Spanish in our secondary schools, but thus far without success.

The Department of Trade and Commerce at Ottawa has shown more interest in the matter, and has published a "*Handbook for Export to South America*" (1915). "Canada," the pamphlet observes, "has an exceptional opportunity to secure a footing in South American markets. There is a chance for her to gain a position that otherwise might take ten years to accomplish. . . . From the standpoint of commercial utility in relation to Canadian exports, next to English, Spanish easily stands first. One very important feature which should be kept clearly in view is that it affords an entry to countries that produce raw material, but manufacture to only a small degree. . . . The United States"—I am still quoting from this well-informed pamphlet—"are making great efforts to take advantage of the present abnormal



situation, and whilst the principal European manufacturing countries are preoccupied with war, to consolidate and greatly extend their trade with Latin America. This movement is of importance to Canada, and should be closely followed. Heretofore, Latin America has looked principally to Europe to supply her with those goods which she does not produce herself; as a consequence of this, trade has fallen into a rut from which, in the ordinary course of events, it would require no small force to dislodge it. But the upheaval caused by the present war has largely upset established conditions, and is providing the force, mentioned above as being necessary, to bring about a rearrangement of the avenues of trade. Such a phenomenon as this, from the viewpoint of commercial relations between the United States and Latin America, can be only favorable to the former, and that their most progressive business men have realized the fact is abundantly evident." The exports of Germany to South America in 1912 were about \$160,000,000; those of Canada in 1914 only \$3,326,863.

Our national needs at the moment call for more attention than in the past to Science and Modern Languages. Our future prosperity depends upon the way in which our universities and schools encourage industrial research and the conversational knowledge of French and Spanish. It is only a question of readjustment to new conditions. If we Modern Language teachers fail in our duty, it is not for lack of sufficient warning. If, as during the present session at the University of Toronto, we require two hours of Middle High German in the Fourth Year, and thereby make it next to impossible for students to devote sufficient time to Modern French or Modern Spanish, the day is not far distant when reform will come from without, and not, as it ought to, from within.

Our first duty is in the University. We must make it possible for our Modern Language specialists, the teachers of the future, to take Spanish without the obstacles that have been placed in its way not only by the Education Department of the Province, but by Modern Language teachers in the University itself. But for the untiring efforts of the late Professor Fraser, Spanish would no longer be upon the curriculum of the University of Toronto. In the very year of the opening of the Panama Canal, members of a certain department waged such a fierce war upon it that only the intervention of President Falcner saved Spanish as a subject for

specialists. In the General Course, their efforts were more successful, and as a consequence, during the following year, because of restrictions imposed, the attendance in Elementary Spanish dropped from 48 to 4! This was a year before war broke out in Europe. As I stated at the beginning of this paper, the Senate of the University has rectified this error. The next step is to reorganize our Modern Language course so that English, French and Spanish shall be required for four years, with Italian and German as optional subjects. Old English, Old French and Old High German can well be held over for study in our Graduate School, where such subjects properly belong. By doing so, much more time would be available for practice in conversation, for it is here that we Modern Language teachers have thus far failed. For this failure, the Universities blame the High Schools, and the High Schools the Universities; but we are all to blame, and I should like to see a whole meeting of the Modern Language Section of this Association devoted to a thorough-going discussion of this serious problem.

There remains only one point, and that concerns the introduction of Spanish in our High Schools. Professor Alfred Baker has, in a most disinterested way, championed this cause, and as a preliminary step has asked the Universities of this Province to recognize Spanish as a subject for matriculation. The Senate of the University of Toronto has expressed approval of the innovation, and no doubt action will be taken in the matter soon. No language would be so popular with our pupils in the secondary schools. The pronunciation is very easy; the sounds are soft and melodious, the grammar simple and regular, with a gratifying absence of exceptions; and, finally, there is already accessible an excellent collection of interesting texts. In our High Schools there are enough graduates in Spanish to make it possible to begin the study at once. Provision could be made for courses in Spanish in our Summer Schools for those who are not already prepared to teach it.

*THE CHURCH AND STATE IN FRANCE.*

PROFESSOR J. S. WILL, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Not so very long ago it would have been impossible to discuss this question openly and without prejudice. Our minds were poisoned against the French Republic. Our traditional detestation of the French Revolution, the legacy of our own wars with France at that time, combined with our ignorance of the real significance of the problems at stake in the political life of that country during the course of the 19th century, as well as with our impatience at being disturbed in our smugness by the intrusion of new ideas, led us to view with intolerance any fresh upheaval in, as it seemed to us, an unnecessarily disquieted country.

Because we did not understand that country we condemned it. From every quarter anathemas were directed against it. Said the Archbishop of Westminster, as if separation and dechristianization were one and the same thing: "The pretext of independence but ill conceals hatred of the Church, and with it, hatred of Christianity. The great French nation can never find its true development unless it provides for the life and prosperity of a church that represents historic Christianity in the country." In Huron County, Ontario, at the same time, an attempt was made to boycott articles of French manufacture. These instances represent fairly well the general uninformed attitude toward France at the time that the separation of Church and State was in process of consummation.

It is possible now, however, to approach the question dispassionately. In France itself, even before the outbreak of the war, the bitterness of fifteen years ago between clericals and anti-clericals had died away, and our minds were free from the echo of that discord. But the chief change is in ourselves. The development of our altered attitude toward the "Queen of Nations" would make an interesting study in national psychology. Do we know France better? Certainly we love her more. Her name is just now one to conjure with. For this change the affiliations of diplomacy and war are largely responsible. The Entente Cordiale closed a century of misunderstandings. It was established when the separation struggle was most bitter, and was due to political exigency, not to mutual

love between the two peoples. It was welcomed in the British Empire not because we knew that an alliance with France was our glorious destiny, but because it was fostered and concluded by a great representative Englishman, of whom we were very proud, and who, more than any other statesman and more than most men of his time, understood the French race and was understood by it. Not the popular voice, but the instinct of Edward VII., guided a none too eager people to its true racial and spiritual affinity on the Continent of Europe.

This bond has been made indissoluble by the war. The patience of France, her unanimity and high courage, her sufferings and endurance, have captivated our minds and changed our mood. Accustomed to regard France as the symbol of lightness and frivolity, as incapable of self-control or self-direction, we have grown ashamed of these thoughts as we watched her imperturbable calm and unmoved determination in the most titanic attack a nation has ever experienced upon her physical and moral resources. We have seen a vision, and France has become real to us. We see her as Joan of Arc, quieting the tumult in her own bosom, divesting herself of the garments of her feminine delicacy, and clothing herself in the armor of light and immortality. In the presence of that vision, all our petty thoughts and suspicions die away.

There are many persons who account for this vision by supposing a new France. The France of to-day, calm, strong, victorious, is not, they say, the France of yesterday. This is a poor and shallow self-deception. Shall a nation change its soul overnight? The Prussia of to-day is the Prussia of yesterday. The France of 1914 and 1917 is the France of yesterday. It is the France of 1870. The difference is that the France of 1914 was in better hands than the France of 1870. Her government in 1914 was in finer moral order, was more capable and less corrupt than her government of forty-seven years ago. We like to say "A New France," "France Herself Again," "France has found her Soul." Let us not pay ourselves with words and invent new phrases as a cloak for our misunderstanding. What we mean is, our eyes have been opened. We have ourselves seen a new vision, the more blinding to us in that our sight was so dark. We have made a discovery. The discovery is that France really, all the while, had a soul.

It is true that there has been some excuse outside of ourselves



for our shallow judgment. For more than a generation France has seen much dispeace at home. Strident voices have been heard. Unseemly quarrels have taken place. Unwise acts have been done. Shameful words have been spoken. Vulgarities have been evident. But these sounds—not, after all, peculiar to France—had died away. The crisis had passed. When the great call came, France knew herself for what she had always been, a great nation, united and unafraid. In spite of its tendency to wrangle, democratic France found itself capable of the great task it had set out to perform. Crutches and apologies might be thrown away. France was whole at heart.

That is the great fact. After more than one hundred years of struggle, disheartening and sickening, French democracy has triumphed. The war has proved it. Finally, inexorably, the Marne and Verdun have sealed the doom of any factional spirit hostile to a democratic France. The travail of a century is completing itself. France is being justified.

This struggle against mediaevalism has been world-wide. Circumstances of a political and temperamental kind have made the fight more pronounced and bitter in France than elsewhere. There the old and the new fought uninterruptedly during the century that has just finished. Between 1814 and 1914 the one great political question was the fate of the principles of democracy. That is the central fact about which the whole national life revolved during that pregnant period. The problem was not how shall democracy rule itself, but, is democracy to be allowed to rule itself? One revolution in 1830, another in 1848, and a war with Prussia in 1870, were all necessary to show the royalists that they, with their eyes fixed on the past, with their creeds and shibboleths and mummeries, were quite unequal to the task of constituting a government for a great forward-looking nation.

Even then they had no mind to learn their lesson. The Republican constitution of 1875 was carried by a majority of one. That majority was sufficient, but on the surface it was not convincing. It seemed to leave the question still open for discussion and solution. The significance of that majority of one is easily misunderstood, however. It was a very considerable defeat for the monarchists. The fact is that the National Assembly was a royalist body. Yet it voted for Republican institutions. But the royalists did not accept

their defeat. For thirty years they carried on an insidious warfare against popular government, using every device and taking advantage of every circumstance to embarrass the Republic. They died hard. Before they died they had all but wrecked their country.

The most united, the most consistent and the most influential supporters of the royalist cause were the clergy. It can be readily understood that they were bitterly hostile to the democratic idea. In the struggle that developed between Republicans and Monarchists after 1871, the Church promptly allied itself with the latter. "The Monarchists were the most inept political party that ever wrecked a powerful cause." The Church shared in the disasters that, one after another, involved that party in ruin during the next twenty years. The first blow was the defeat of Macmahon in 1877. The next was the Boulangist fiasco in 1888-9—where the clergy were again on the losing side. Then the *cause célèbre* of the decade, beginning in 1894—the Dreyfus case—alienated great masses of moderate opinion from the Catholic and Conservative party, and threw them into the ever-swelling ranks of the radicals and anti-clericals. In this amazing affair, which impassioned the entire nation, and in which the individual wronged was lost sight of in a titanic struggle on behalf of toleration, freedom and the essential principles of justice, the Clergy were again with the losers.

Thus, in the last quarter of the century, the clericals had manœuvred the Church out of a position of great prestige. In 1875 the Catholics had every card in their hands. "They were in power. They had money and influence; they had the officials, the judges, the army, a great majority in Parliament, the Ministers and the Chief of the State." The anti-clericals were an insignificant minority. When it became plain that the clergy had united with the royalists for the restoration of the monarchy, the anti-clericals declared war. The attack was opened by a demand for educational reforms. Elementary education, then under the direction of the Church, was taken out of its hands. It was made free and compulsory. The schools were secularized. The State, as well, resumed control of University degrees. Finally, all religious orders not definitely authorized by law were expelled from the country.

This anti-clerical spirit, although nourished by the Boulanger movement, died to a very large extent when the wise Leo XIII.

called upon French Catholics to line themselves up with the Republic and give it their full support, since all authority was from God. Had this prudent advice been followed, it is in the highest degree probable that the question of separation would not have arisen to this day. The spirit of hostility to the clergy grew again very rapidly, however, when it was seen that the educational laws were being flagrantly violated, when the clerical attacks upon the State schools grew in violence, and the persecution of school-teachers grew more open. It was fanned into a flame by the Dreyfus case.

The Dreyfus trial laid bare the fact that the majority of the clergy had refused to follow Leo's advice concerning adhesion to the Republic. Their uncompromising hostility caused real political disorder. I do not wish to enter into the details of this passionate, sordid and tragic story. The documents in the case have been more than once printed. Elections were manipulated, officials were corrupted with the money of the faithful, civil war was threatened, the overthrow of the Republic was again and again advocated. The picture of a religious crusade in the twentieth century is scarcely imaginable, but passion begets passion and patriots might be pardoned for resenting a call for the repetition of the horrors of St. Bartholomew's day. Let us think that such appeals would not have received episcopal approbation at a calmer moment. Not all of the clergy were involved in these attacks. It was the religious orders that were especially imprudent in their words and deeds.

The immediate effect of this attitude of the clergy was to unite against them all the parties that on other grounds would have been irreconcilables. Radicals, democrats, socialists, moderate Republicans, all with one voice demanded the disciplining of the refractory clergy. The government called upon all religious orders to obtain authorization or disperse. Some left the country without more ado—the Jesuits and the Benedictines. Then in an unjustifiable and intolerant way, the rest were expelled almost *en masse*.

It was the clergy who had forced the issue. Frenchmen saw themselves confronted by two conceptions of government: the clerical or Roman and the secular. To their minds the latter was the Christian conception, because it recognized that there were certain things that should be rendered to Caesar, and others that should be rendered to God. The moment had come when a decision must be made between these two ideals. The nation had found that

whenever it wished to take a step toward social and political equality the clergy stood across its path. The clergy had found it impossible to keep away from purely political affairs, and, as the Bishop of Rouen said, the intervention of the clergy in political matters had always been fatal to the Church.

Separation seemed the only solution. The old working agreement, the Concordat of 1801, had had its day. A new arrangement was necessary. In the long association of Church and State in France, separation had seemed imminent more than once. It had been contemplated by Philip the Fair as a solution of his difficulties with Boniface VIII. It had actually taken place in 1794. Lamennais had seen in it the only hope for the Church. Lamartine had urged it. It was discussed in 1880. Now men hesitated before the fact. Waldeck-Rousseau was opposed to it. Even Combes refused his consent to its presentation to the Chamber while he was leader of the government. After he had resigned, he proposed it himself.

Finally, separation was rendered inevitable by the action of the Vatican itself. In 1903, the Papal Secretary informed the French ambassador that the Pope was not favorable to the proposed visit of the President of the Republic to the King of Italy. "His Holiness would regard it as an insult as well to the rights of the Holy See as to his august person, and in consequence declines all responsibility for the serious consequences that an event of this kind would have for French influence in foreign lands." This veiled threat against the sovereignty of the French nation could not pass unnoticed. More Catholic kings of France than Henry IV. had bridled at such an attack. President Loubet paid his visit, which was one of pure courtesy, to the King of Italy. The Pope wounded the *amour propre* of the French people by calling upon the governments of Europe to resent the action of the French President. Nothing could save the situation. Diplomatic relations were severed. The Law of Separation was proposed in February, 1905, and was passed in December following. It became effective without disturbances.

The Bill was constructed with great deliberation and after careful investigation of ecclesiastical interests. It became law only after prolonged examination before the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Every opportunity was given for criticism. No essential interest was neglected. The purpose of the Commission was to



safeguard religion while making it impossible for organized ecclesiasticism to embarrass the State. The State was to be secularized. All religious bodies were put on the same footing. Under the name of "Cultural Associations" (or "Associations for Public Worship"). All religions—Catholic, Protestant, Hebrew, etc.—were given the same standing. Congregations were to be formed by the voluntary motion of persons so inclined. On application to the authorities, these societies received formal recognition as civil bodies. Eventually, such congregations were to be self-supporting, deriving no assistance from the State. In the meantime, pensions (totalling about 25,000,000 francs) were provided for the clergy, toward whom the State had no thought of denying its obligations as under the Concordat. Existing Church buildings became the property of these associations on comparatively trifling conditions. The State is not to be blamed if, profiting by experience, it made impossible the heaping up by wealthy congregations of great reserves which might be used again for other than religious or beneficent ends.

The majority of French Catholics accepted the law quietly. Some of the Bishops set to work to reorganize their dioceses in conformity with the proposed provisions of the Bill, even before the Bill had been placed on the Statute books. They saw that every protection was being furnished for the dignity, the discipline and the material interests of the Church. The bishops met in convention and agreed to comply with the law, while endorsing its *theoretical* condemnation by the Pope. A few disturbances occurred, created by "pious hooligans," but the Administration remained calm and tolerant. The time limit for the formation of associations was extended again and again, and every facility was provided for the making of the adjustments necessary to such a crisis.

Prophecies of evil have not been made true. Schism has not broken out in the Church. To prevent this the law provided that property would be assigned only to those associations that remained in communion with the original church. The State renounced its ancient right of the appointment and even of the nomination of bishops. There remains no impediment to the Pope's authority over the clergy. Membership has not declined. Secularization has not meant a declaration of atheism. The prestige of the episcopate as a civil authority has diminished, but its moral influence will benefit thereby. Gallicanism, the distinguishing feature of the

Church of France, the cause of many quarrels with Rome and heart-burnings on the part of the Pope, exists no more. Ultramontanism has triumphed in the Church—Will this mean a slow death because of the crushing out of the spirit of liberalism?

In so far as one is able to judge, the results of this law have been beneficial to the Church. The intransigent element, following the lead of the Curia, has succeeded in depriving the Church of some of the advantages of the law, but these will correct themselves in time. The Church has not suffered in her active representatives. The self-devotion of the priest has won increasing respect. The austere simplicity of his life and his cheerful perseverance strike the heroic note and disarm criticism. To his side he has attracted many of his harshest critics. The newspapers have dropped their attacks. As he organizes his work among the young men, among laborers, among the women of his cure, he is gaining the respect and confidence of those with whom he engages in closer and closer rivalry. Here, too, the war plays its happy as well as its fateful part. The priest, the pastor and the rabbi are seeing the deeper mysteries of love and forbearance as they strive together in the same great heroism of sacrifice and devotion. These are the best pledges for the future of the religious life of France.

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*IN MEMORY OF WILLIAM HENRY FRASER (1853-1916).*

JOHN SQUAIR, UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO.

Within a few months a considerable group of my old friends have passed away: James Loudon, ex-President of the University of Toronto; Emile Pernet, my predecessor in the chair of French in University College and my old teacher to whom I owe so much; William Oldright, my teacher in Italian; John J. Tilley, my inspector when I was a public school teacher; and W. H. Fraser, fellow-student, fellow-professor and collaborator in authorship. I hope it will not be considered out of place to pause here a moment to say how grateful I am for having had the friendship of these men. They were all kind to me, and I derived much advantage from them. Men sometimes say, "in a world of hate;" I cannot speak thus. In days gone by I have found it a world of kindness much more than of hate. And I will not despair of the future, black as the present may seem.

By the death of Professor Fraser the teaching profession of Ontario has lost one of its most distinguished members, and this Modern Language group one of its most able and faithful workers. It is no exaggeration to say that no one ever gave better service to this Association. It was my good fortune to be closely associated with him from beginning to end, and I know whereof I speak.

The Modern Language Association of Ontario, the original name of this Section, was founded on Dec. 29th, 1886, in the Y.M.C.A. Building of University College. There were twenty-eight persons present on that occasion, who might be called the charter members of the Association, although there was a preliminary meeting, in the preceding August, of eight persons. Professor Fraser was not at the preliminary meeting, but he was one of the twenty-eight charter members, and took an active part in our first real meeting, at which he was made a member of the Executive Council.

The second meeting of the Association was held in the Canadian Institute on December 28th and 29th, 1887, at which Professor Fraser read a paper entitled "The Ear and Eye in Modern Language Teaching" (The Canada Educational Monthly, 1888, pp. 41-47). The object of the paper was, as one might guess from its

title, to emphasize the importance of oral practice in Modern Language classes. At the sixth meeting of the Association, held on April 19th, 20th and 21st, 1892, a paper by Professor Fraser was read, on "Pass French and German in the University of Toronto," in which an outline was given of the history of the University's legislation regarding French and German in the General Course. It will be remembered that a commotion had been aroused by a statute of the Senate of the University, passed on March 13th, 1891, which made Pass Greek equal to Pass French plus Pass German. I have not been able to find Professor Fraser's paper of April 20th, 1892, but an article by him, which appeared in *The Canada Educational Monthly* in the April and May numbers, 1891, contains the same substance, and makes interesting reading even now. In it Professor Fraser's skill as a controversialist is shown at its best. Clear, incisive, satirical, it did something to console us for what we considered the stupid action of the Senate on March 13th, 1891.

In 1893, a federation was effected between the various bodies of teachers in Ontario, and the Modern Language Association, although retaining its first name, became virtually the Modern Language Section of the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association.

At the meeting in this year (1893), Professor Fraser was appointed Secretary-Treasurer of this Association, and remained such for five years. He was the best Secretary the Association has ever had. For promptness, exactness, initiative, attention to all phases of our interests, he could not be excelled. He was unequalled in his skill in getting fees from dilatory members, and the money once obtained, he never allowed predatory attacks to be made on the treasury. Hence our bank balance was constantly growing. He was very successful, also, in encouraging the production of good papers at our annual meetings. He had that prudent kind of audacity which enables men to extort from others what they ought to give, but which they give unwillingly. He was not afraid to ask, and he usually got what he asked for. For instance, he obtained from the Modern Language Association of America their valuable series of publications in exchange for our Proceedings. As Secretary, he naturally became our representative on the Board of Directors of the General Association, and there he became one of the most



valued members on the Printing Committee and elsewhere. I have certain knowledge that he rendered constantly important service. During his Secretaryship, and subsequently, Professor Fraser contributed papers such as "Reform in Modern Language Methods in Germany," in 1894; "The Humour and Satire of the First Rogue Story," in 1900; "Methods of Teaching Modern Languages," his presidential address, in 1901; "The Direct Method in the French Lycée," in 1911. It would be impossible to give any satisfactory analysis of these papers in the time at our disposal. Those interested may find them in the Proceedings and in the numbers of *The Canada Educational Monthly* already cited. It may suffice to say that they show those qualities of honest, radical thinking and clear expression which always characterized him. There was often in them also a quality of satirical humour, which added zest to his utterances. He might sometimes appear dry, but beneath the surface, ready to be revealed, there were always springs of wit.

Professor Fraser was one possessed of rare linguistic ability. He could learn languages rapidly and accurately, and took pleasure in doing so. Hence he could teach well. He knew what the essentials were, and he could present them attractively. In the criticism of literature and the allied arts, such as painting, he had the faculty of seeing quickly into the heart of things. He could find his way readily through the maze of the less important things into the full meaning of the great works of the past.

It may not be out of place for me, who had such intimate relations with Professor Fraser as author, to repeat here a paragraph from an article which I wrote for *The University Monthly* of February, 1917:

"It was as joint authors that Professor Fraser and the writer were most intimately associated. 'The High School French Reader' was our first production. It appeared in 1890. In the following year we brought out 'The High School French Grammar.' These were used in the High Schools of Ontario until they were displaced, in 1900, by 'The High School French Grammar and Reader,' which might be called a combined second edition of the first two, although many new things appeared in it. In 1913, we made a completely new book, called the 'New High School French Grammar,' which, in the High Schools of Ontario, displaced the

book of 1900. It will always be to me a matter for gratitude that I was associated so long and so intimately in the production of these books, as colleague, with a man of such ability. He faced all difficulties with great skill. He shirked nothing. Patient in research, he did not spare himself in getting at the truth. Courageous in innovating, he helped to reform where the world had outgrown the methods of older grammarians."

But he is gone. No more shall we have the benefit of his sensible counsels, nor the consolation of his constant fidelity. And as we mourn for him, let us not forget his bereaved family, to whom he meant so much. As husband and father, he was one of the best of men. If we miss him, wife and children will miss him much more.

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## CLASSICAL SECTION

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### *ENGLISH AND AMERICAN CLASSICAL SCHOLARSHIP COMPARED.*

N. W. DEWITT, PH.D., VICTORIA COLLEGE.

There are two stages in the history of Latin scholarship in Great Britain, before we come down to the present day. In the first stage, Latin was the most practical of studies. Not to be able to read and to speak it was to be a barbarian. The Venerable Bede in England in the eighth century did not learn it for the sake of the discipline, nor did Alfred the Great in the next century; they left the parsing stage with all speed and hastened the work of translation in order that the people among whom they lived and served might be brought within the pale of civilization. In the next stage, we find Latin regarded as the mark of the gentleman. For example, when Roger Ascham, the great Elizabethan schoolmaster, declared that "All men covet to have their children speak Latin," he was hardly thinking of any but the sons of gentlefolk. In the eighteenth century, when classical scholarship was at its lowest ebb in England, though sedulously cultivated in Scotland, members of Parliament were still quoting Horace in public speeches, and false quantities, it is alleged, would provoke a smile on learned faces. The nineteenth century, although it saw a tremendous movement in technical linguistic studies under the scientific impulse of comparative philology, witnessed a marked decline in the esteem in which classical studies were held, for that century was democratic in its social thought, and democracy holds a knowledge of book-keeping higher than literary culture, and the tools of the skilled mechanic higher than the pen of the scholar.

In America, this venerable tradition that a gentleman's education is somehow incomplete without a knowledge of Latin, lay at the bottom of New England culture down to the time of the Civil War. The eloquence of Daniel Webster, the most perfect exponent of that culture, was thoroughly Ciceronian in its cast. He ennobled

his ideas by the use of heavy words and sonorous phrases; he built up long and rolling periods, marshalling his clauses with a skilfulness that comes only from natural gifts, choice reading, and careful practice. His greatest successor, Edward Everett, without whose presence no great occasion was complete during the middle years of the last century, seems to have studied every precept of the ancient rhetoric, but his great oration, delivered at the dedication of the Gettysburg cemetery, in 1863, has almost passed into oblivion, while the faltering monosyllables of Abraham Lincoln, uttered on the same occasion, have become familiar to all people who pretend to possess an intelligent interest in democratic government. The War was the turning-point. The simple, untaught son of a Western pioneer gave a new language to politics. Nowadays it almost seems as if Great Britain were receiving the same lesson from the lips of an untaught Welshman, for the language of Lloyd-George is as different from that of Gladstone, or even of Asquith, the pupil of Jowett of Balliol, as Abraham Lincoln's was different from that of Webster or Everett. Latin is no longer necessary for the sort of gentleman which the modern world holds in highest esteem.

The decline of Ciceronian eloquence in America is rather strangely accompanied by the rise of Latin scholarship of the German type, for it was in the decade just before the war that Americans began to resort to German universities for the study of Latin and Greek. It is true that Edward Everett was at Göttingen for two years before 1819, and George Bancroft, who left the Classics to make a name for himself in the field of history, was also in the same university at about the same time. Such early examples are rare, however. Lane of Harvard went abroad in 1847 and studied at Göttingen, Bonn, Berlin and Heidelberg. Harkness, the first American to graduate at Bonn, took his degree there in 1854. The great Whitney of Yale, of Sanskrit fame, went to Bonn in 1850. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins took his doctorate at Göttingen in 1853, and had studied previously at Bonn. After the Civil War, the emigration to Germany assumed such proportions that, to mention names would be needless and tedious. It must be said however, that the foreign degree often gave to its holders an advantage out of all proportion to its value. It was only towards the end of the



century that men came to know that these degrees were often won by little labor, and that European universities were by no means inclined to be so strict with foreign students as with their own countrymen, for whose subsequent career they would in part be held responsible.

Of these Americans who first went abroad it is remarkable how almost all became fascinated with syntactical and grammatical studies, and how exclusively they owe their fame to the publication of grammars. Goodwin, although he was professor of Greek for forty-one years, and worked on a variety of subjects, is known solely by his Greek Grammar and Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb. Goodwin's Moods and Tenses stimulated J. B. Greenough to work on the Latin Subjunctive and ultimately led to the widely used Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar, while Greenough's numerous other writings are known only to specialists. George Martin Lane, professor of Latin at Harvard for forty-three years, left as his sole monument a Latin Grammar. I venture to say that none of you have heard of Woolsey of Yale, who edited Greek tragedies, but most of you have heard of his successor, James Hadley, who published a Greek Grammar. Even Gildersleeve is perhaps most widely known as the author of a Latin Grammar, unless in Great Britain, where his Pindar has attracted more notice. It is needless to treat this topic to the point of exhaustion. Yet mention should be made of the "*American Journal of Philology*," whose forty-odd numbers teem with articles of a syntactical and grammatical character.

In this realm of grammar and syntax the Britisher seems to take but little interest, and I am not sure that he does not feel that a man puts himself outside the pale by displaying enthusiasm for technical linguistic studies. Sandys, in his *History of Classical Scholarship*, gives short shrift to grammarians. H. J. Roby is barely mentioned; Kennedy of Cambridge is lauded for many accomplishments, but not as the author of the *Public School Latin Grammar*. Goodwin's works are freely used and praised in England, but no ambitious author has attempted to replace them. Englishmen are quite content, it seems, to allow others to do the drudgery of scholarship. Even in the domain of Latin prose composition they have depended upon Krebb's *Antibarbarus* as a

standard of reference for Latin idioms and usage. Manuals of syntax like Arnold's, Thompson's and Sidgwick's are of course abundant, but these are not scientific in their method. American grammars, on the other hand, like Allen & Greenough, Hale & Buck, are avowedly based upon studies of comparative philology and comparative syntax. The Britisher's views are of course shared by many scholars on this side of the water, who assert, very truly, that grammar and syntax are pseudo-sciences, but this class, although growing in numbers and influence, perhaps, has been a minority from the beginning.

Over against this American absorption in technical linguistic studies must be placed the persistent interest of Englishmen in translation. One will readily recall Chapman's Homer, which inspired the poet Keats; Dryden's Virgil, which delighted at least one generation of Englishmen, and is still deemed worthy of reprinting; and, above all, Pope's Iliad, which reached a circulation unsurpassed in the annals of the book trade not only down to its own time, but even long afterwards; although totally unlike the original in its manner, it actually became a school book and an English classic. In our own day, where comparisons are more just, we may mention Jowett's Plato, which resembles Plato little more than Pope's Iliad resembles Homer, as the author well knew; his own personality went into it, and he declared explicitly that he was more concerned to write good English than to render faithfully every little detail of the original. Popular as his translation became, it did not hinder the circulation of Davis and Vaughn, which peeps from the bookshelf of many a philosopher who does not understand Greek. To mention other translators would be tedious, but I might generalize by saying that whenever a new style becomes popular in English it seems worth while to render some ancient author in the same; it was this that called forth Conington's Virgil in the ballad metre of Sir Walter Scott, and the Iliad and Odyssey in the archaic English of Lang, Leaf, and Myers, and Butcher and Lang, respectively. Against these we have nothing to oppose in America unless the Odyssey of George Herbert Palmer, and he is not a classicist but a professor of philosophy at Harvard.

Translation appeals to the English scholar in yet another way, and from a point of view that it is useful for every classical man

to thoroughly understand, namely, as a clincher to the commentary. The great Moritz Haupt of Berlin, who was a dominating figure in Germany in the middle part of the last century, uttered the famous dictum that "Translation is the death of the understanding," and this was held to be vitally true by Henry Nettleship, who was the second to hold the professorship of Latin at Oxford. But Nettleship was temperamentally allied to the Germans, and had studied under Haupt. Conington, who, to be sure, was not a scholar of the very highest rank, issued a rendering of Virgil in prose, which can be understood only as a commentary on the text. The same explanation must be urged for Jebb's *Sophocles* and Munro's *Lucretius*. It was felt by such as these that the commentary will often fall short of being convincing unless a rendering in English is added to re-enforce the interpretation of the passage in its whole context. I imagine, also, that there is the pleasure of discovery and the delight of sport in trying to find the English phrase, which, no matter how unlike it seems to the original, somehow evokes its real spirit and feeling and displays its content. Englishmen have less interest in linguistics, than in style and thought, and seem to find an unending delight in shaping the happy phrase. That the same will some day be true of Americans I can well believe, but they have been warped from their natural bent by intellectual cleverness and the seductive mirage of "research," which leads one astray in literary pursuits.

The English devotion to translation as a pastime, as a branch of scholarship, as an art, and almost as a profession, calls sharply to our notice that the study of the classics in the old land has never been divorced from the composite literary life of the country, nor even from politics. Butcher's *Translation of the Poetics of Aristotle* and the essays bound up with it in the same volume have become as familiar to the literary public as any manual of modern criticism. The Irishman, James Henry, whose great edition of Virgil, is marked by profound learning, discerning taste and penetrating sympathy, and lacks only conciseness, was by profession a physician. George Grote, whose *Greek History* and studies of Plato and Aristotle found their way to many an unprofessional library, was a banker and a member of Parliament. Speaking of Parliament, it may well be borne in mind that Sir R. C. Jebb represented the

University of Cambridge for fourteen years. Sir Alexander Grant, known to us chiefly by his edition of Aristotle's *Ethics*, held executive positions in India for eight years before becoming principal of the University of Edinburgh, and, to the last, was more of an administrator than a scholar. Benjamin Jowett was not only known equally as a controversialist and as a scholar, but he trained up an astonishing number of men for public life, such as Asquith, Lord Curzon and Sir Edward Grey. Not to burden you with more proof and demonstration, I may assert that men who were trained chiefly in the Classics have at all times been exerting significant influence in literature, in the Church, in offices of administration, and in parliamentary life.

In America, the fruits of classical scholarship were realized only so long as New England and Virginia were closed communities. With the dissipation of population consequent upon the settlement of the West, and the dilution of social, political, and religious feeling consequent upon the influx of myriads of families from the humbler classes of Europe, we recognize the emergence of that phenomenon known as the "self-made man," and the growth of a positive prejudice against college education. Even the example of an extraordinary man like Lincoln, which could be of little use to ordinary people, might be held up as an excuse for belittling the educated man. What was especially unfortunate for the interests of the Classics, the new life that came into them through the enthusiasms of the early nineteenth century rendered them even less useful than the painstaking labor of reading Caesar, Cicero, Virgil and Horace, which constituted the traditional programme, and at the same time less comprehensible to the man in the street. The thirst for the unknown, so indispensable to the scientist; the ambition to make a name for oneself by original investigation; the fancy that the study of language is really scientific—these impulses started the "research" movement in this field, where there is least scope for it.

For the origins of the research movement we must go back to the first half of the nineteenth century, when the discovery of the true relationship of Sanskrit to Latin and Greek sent a wave of enthusiasm through the republic of letters. It happened that New England society in those days was full of vigor and was reaching out for the culture of Europe in every field of learning. Even England frankly admitted her shortcomings in pure scholarship in those



days, and appointed a professor of Latin for the first time in history. The famous Max Müller was invited to England by the East India Company to edit the Rigveda, where his brilliant lectures on the Science of Language led to his appointment of Professor of Comparative Philology at Oxford, in 1868. America, in the same age, boasted of a scholar whose fame has proved to be more lasting, in the person of the brilliant William Dwight Whitney, of Yale, who had been, like Müller, a pupil of Franz Bopp, in Berlin; like Müller, he was a good lecturer, and his "Life and Growth of Language" was translated into many languages. With these two men the two countries, answering to the same impulses, started even; but in Great Britain, whether by reason of wisdom, or temperament, or conservatism, Max Müller seems to have had few followers; in America the devotees of classical research have been legion, though few deserve to be called disciples of the incomparable Whitney. As I said, research is apt to be competitive, and the race for distinction by this route seems to have made an irresistible appeal to the ambitious American. The result has often proven to be a scholarship as penetrating as a needle and of no larger dimensions.

This does not mean that subjects for dissertations cannot be found. Professor Shorey of Chicago used to tell us that so long as a doctoral dissertation could be written on The Hiccough of Aristophanes in the Symposium of Plato, graduate students need not fear that they would have nothing to write about.

Wise and experienced teachers are always able and willing to steer an earnest and industrious man into profitable fields. I believe the best work will be done in connection with the great authors themselves. Virgil has been strangely neglected in the last fifty years, especially in England and America. Latin of the Empire is rarely read and is highly profitable. Roman religion is but little understood by the average classicist, and few are aware of what light it brings to history and literature. A vast amount of valuable study could be done along the line of semantics, which would fall quite within the range of a well-equipped student of good taste, and the results would be well worth printing. Poetic diction is but imperfectly understood in its relationship to vulgar Latin, to investigate which would be a real boon. Prose rhythm

is well enough understood but too rarely studied, and one might well make a reading of Cicero's writings to determine the limits of its employment.

This impetus given to classical studies in the United States by comparative philology has lasted right down to the present day, but I believe it to be at an end. Every fashion, every fad, every misconceived ideal, must some day reach a pitch of absurdity which will put an end to it. This is just as true of educational fashions as it is of women's hats, sleeves, or skirts, which periodically reach an extreme, when it is suddenly realized that the thing is funny and no longer tolerable. When a misguided professor attempts to introduce the science of comparative philology into a public school Latin grammar it is just as absurd as a women trying to board a street car in a hoop-skirt, and the psychology of the two attempts is not greatly different. I once heard an American student demand of a professor the explanation of the subjunctive in the sentence:

"Vitulus petit antequam cornua habeat."

Now the professor understood thoroughly the higher criticism of Latin Grammar, and, addressing himself to the ceiling, with a twinkle in his eye, he delivered himself of the following: "The calf butts before he has horns; *habeat* is the anticipatory subjunctive; the calf anticipates that he will have horns, or, if the student is reluctant to admit to allow this degree of foreknowledge to the calf. . . ." A saving sense of humor is infinitely useful in this field.

To return to research and the Classics, the scope of it in this field is extremely limited. One may read Livy from beginning to end for the sake of the ablative absolutes, but the results are hardly worth having. One soon digs a hole for himself that sinks him every day farther from the light and air. The idea that language is governed by laws is a chimera. The scientific study of language, so-called, is at best an analogy. A law of nature is never abrogated for a moment. Hydrogen and oxygen will always combine in the same way under constant conditions, and the scientist can control the conditions. Two vowels in the same word will combine in quite different ways into two dialects, for example in Doric and Ionic. A law of language is just a generalization from assembled facts. Nothing can be predicted with certainty. In syntax, the variations of dialects starting from a common base is yet more incalculable.

no *a priori* reasoning is of use. There are puzzles that can never be solved. Did the subjunctive originally express will or futurity? Were the subjunctive and optative originally clearly separated between the expression of will and wish? Is the historical present the survival of a one-tense stage in the development of language, or is it a prehistoric stylistic invention? The men who strive to settle such problems are likely to segregate themselves from useful life, and they will not agree with one another. The amount of technical knowledge requisite for such recondite research goes far beyond the needs of literary interpretation, which is the chief function of learning for the vast majority of students. Research leads us into domains hardly worth exploring. Let us leave it for the few.

Moreover, the Germans have already about finished the drudgery of investigation for classical scholars. American universities, looking forward to a participation in this labor, have been amassing vast libraries. During the last few years scarcely a German professor has passed to the other world but his collection of books and magazines has been secured for some American institution. The University of Illinois, for example, is spending \$50,000 per year on books, and they don't wait to write letters or to select what they want; they cable for whole libraries. Many Western universities are buying on a scale that is almost comparable to this. English universities, of course, have been maintaining their libraries with equal efficiency and at less expense for a long time, but with a different aim. They are not planning to rival the Germans; they are quite content to take advantage of the fruits of the toil of others, and to digest their learning. Many an English publication, like Warde-Fowler's *Religious Experience of the Roman People*, for example, is salted and peppered with references to German lexicons, dissertations, and magazines, but the conclusions are strictly his own, no matter whether they agree with his authorities or not. He depends upon them for collections of data; he is instructed by their discussions, but he is not trying to rival them. He is seeking to bring useful truth to light. Many Americans, on the other hand, have had it in their minds to rival the Germans, which is impossible at this late day. The handicap is too great, even if the race were worth winning.

I ought to say, for fear you may imagine that I ascribe all

virtue to the British scholars and none to the Americans, that the former have valued greatly the approval of the Germans, and have long been proud of the high position won by men like Bentley and Porson in the 18th century in the estimation of their continental colleagues. The desire of this approval has had its humorous side at times, as in the case of a certain Britisher of the name of Gray, who prided himself on his skill in emendation and long hankered for continental notice, which at length arrived in a way he had not anticipated, for a German mentioned one of his suggestions as a "rotten" emendation, *putide Graius*. I might mention also in the last century that the admiration of Mommsen amounted almost to adulation in England. To disagree with Mommsen was regarded by some as little short of heterodoxy. So extreme was this that the editors of an English Encyclopædia rejected an article of an eminent Cambridge professor because it dissented from Mommsen's views on the subject of the Etruscans. Now it happens that Mommsen's chapter on the Etruscans is perhaps the weakest in his whole history; he thought that they came into Italy through the Alps from the north, a theory that contradicts both tradition and evidence, and is held by no one to-day. The English professor was right, and I believe his article was ultimately printed, but the treatment dealt out to him is a signal proof of the deference paid to the German historian.

Speaking of Mommsen reminds me of a characteristic trait that is common to both Britain and America, namely, the lack of co-operation. Mommsen employed a vast number of young doctors of philosophy to assemble material for him, which he collated and digested with prodigious skill, enabling himself to produce voluminous works on history, law, chronology, numismatics, philology, and epigraphy. These men, if they did not die of overwork, as several of them did, were rewarded with recommendations to academic positions. The machine that he built up through this kind of patronage, which he commanded through the friendship of the Kaiser, not only lifted German historical scholarship to a level unknown in the world before, but completely overawed the English universities, whose scholars were still working as individuals. His model of organization was adopted in other fields in order to turn out works like the Pauly-Wissowa Encyclopædia and Roscher's Lexicon of Greek and Roman Mythology, which constitute vast



reservoirs of material for students of ancient biography, antiquities, geography, religion, and mythology, and every thing else under the ancient sun. The very greatest achievement of organized scholarship, however, was the collection and publication of the inscriptions of the Roman Empire, arranged by provinces, in separate volumes, all edited from the stones by an army of experts trained by Mommsen himself and working under his direction and the pay of the Prussian Academy. These enormous volumes now amount to a pile five feet high, and are far from complete. You all have heard, no doubt, of the *Thesaurus Linguae Latinae* undertaken sixteen years ago by the co-operation of five German universities and scores of scholars. Over against these specimens of Prussian efficiency, place the attempt of Henry Nettleship to compile a *Latin Lexicon* by his own unaided efforts, having failed to secure co-operation. He was compelled to give it up, as might have been expected, after finishing enough material to fill a volume. Smith's *Dictionaries of Greek and Roman Biography and Antiquities* and *Greek and Roman Mythology* were of course products of organized literary labor, but are not to be compared with the similar German works in exhaustiveness; perhaps they are more useful on that account to the majority of scholars. The great *Greek Lexicon* of Liddell owed very little to the assistance of the Americans, Drisler, Goodwin, and Gildersleeve, and if there be any truth in an Oxford epigram, was largely the work of one of the authors whose name appears on the title page. So far as I know, the fat volumes of Professor Frazer on *Pausanias' Description of Greece*, and the nine volumes on religion and anthropology are the single-handed production of the author. In America, with all the German-trained professors, there has been no attempt at organized production. Charlton T. Lewis, of *Latin Dictionary* fame, was a busy and eminent lawyer of New York city, who gave his part of his mornings to the dictionary. Goodwin of Harvard was highly regarded as a man and a teacher, but he built up no school of followers. Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins is said to have utilized the toil of one of his assistants, but the majority of the graduates of his seminar were cast upon the world to work out their own salvation. I believe this to be a happy omen for American scholarship, and an indication that, in the course of time, it will veer in the direction of English models, paying greater attention to matters of taste, literary criti-

cism, and what we call the humanities. They will surely realize that the drudgery of scholarship has largely been done in our field and that we may remain content for others to have done it.

It would be a great omission to overlook a paradoxical situation that has arisen in the domain of Archaeology. An Oxford student can reach Italy in twenty-four hours, but strange to say, the Americans, who are separated from the Mediterranean by a quite costly journey of ten or twelve days, have devoted themselves to the study of classical archaeology with much greater enthusiasm. When I was in Rome in 1903-4, there were some twenty students at the American School of Classical Studies, and none that I knew of at the English School, although the latter offered instruction of the most excellent kind. In the American School in Athens there was also a marked disparity, and I was told that such was usually the case in both places. I should estimate that, since the foundation of the American School in Athens in 1881, and the School in Rome in 1895, that almost 500 students have been enrolled, of whom the majority have been teachers. It is no wonder that the average of archaeological knowledge in the United States should be amazingly high, and that American High School teachers should scorn to be behind the times in their knowledge of excavations. One American professor went so far as to assert that he was more desirous that his pupils should be Romans than that they should be Latinists. This was the inevitable extreme. Englishmen have been more moderate in their enthusiasm and are to be classified in Greece and Italy rather as intelligent travellers than archaeologists. Nevertheless there are more eminent archaeologists in England than in America, which reverses the paradox.

Along with the American interest in Archaeology, with its foreign schools, its Bulletins, and its Journal, goes the enthusiasm for the study of classical antiquities, such as dress, ornaments, domestic arrangements, and private life; classical plays have been frequently reproduced at Harvard, which has an open-air Greek theatre, also at Barnard College in New York city, and even in high schools throughout the West; but especially at Berkeley, California, where the climate justifies peculiarly the use of the magnificent open-air theatre. When I was in St. Louis on the staff of the Washington University, I witnessed the recital in the original Greek of long passages from the *Odyssey*, which was a regular feature of com-

mencement week. It is no uncommon thing for high school pupils to have a small periodical printed in Latin, and a Rochester high school is organized as a Roman Republic, being divided into tribes and classes for voting purposes. The stereopticon is universal in schools and colleges alike, and is enthusiastically lauded as a means of stimulating interest. One of my former students, who was subjected to this sort of instruction *ad nauseam* by a college professor, told me that he usually went to sleep, finding it an irresistible sedative. Being usually accompanied by a plentiful lack of ventilation, I can well believe it. Concerning the other stimuli, mentioned above, which are also coming into use in Great Britain, it must be remembered that they don't create any real interest in the language and literature, that they do induce sentiment, and that the frequent use of them is an entertaining waste of time, and never should receive academic credit.

In this connection one ought to deal with the apparent contradiction between the flagging of interest in classical scholarship in the United States and the enormous increase in the number of students pursuing Latin studies in the high schools. It is an undeniable fact that the number of graduate students in the universities is very small, so small indeed that professors drawing large salaries are sometimes quite without classes, and the quality of students is often poor. Greek has practically disappeared from the public high schools, and the graduate student, in consequence, is two or three years behind in this branch. In the high schools, on the other hand, the enrolments in Latin are enormous and the pupils attain great proficiency in the oral reading of Latin and great glibness in oral translation. Of these pupils, however, only a few, and these almost exclusively girls, pursue the study in college, unless it is required. Most of them matriculate at some small college, where the course of study is often in the hands of some well-meaning enthusiast, who does not know how to write Latin, much less Greek, and, in general, prefers the sauce to the pudding. Ancient history is totally neglected, and philosophy is taboo, departmental jealousy often preventing professors of Greek or Latin from touching either. In the large state universities the public opinion of the student body is often so overwhelmingly in favor of science and against Latin and Greek, that even one who has liked the Classics in high school is frightened away. Of conditions in the Old Land I am unable to



speak, through lack of knowledge, but I judge that the provincial universities, with scientific preferences, are gaining ground every year, and I judge from the fads being urged in the secondary schools that the old order is changing.

Putting what I have said together, by way of *résumé*, it may be recognized that similar situations have ensued upon somewhat different courses of action. In both countries the friends of the Classics feel that the time is critical. In the month of June a conference of representatives from all parts of the United States and Canada will be held in Princeton to discuss what means shall be taken for encouraging the study of the Classics. In England the Classical Association has issued a bulletin setting forth the claims of classical studies, a quiet reply to the pamphlet issued by the scientists on the Neglect of Scientific Studies. In both countries there is a nervous searching for new and more timely methods, such as the *viva voce* system of Mr. W. H. D. Rouse, who has been invited to make demonstrations in the summer school of Columbia University, New York. In both countries, though more markedly in America, is conspicuous the use of stimuli, such as the acting of plays, the study of antiquities, and archaeology in general.

In the near future there is bound to be a revaluation of values, which will bring the two peoples nearer together. The statement of Edward Everett, uttered in 1819, that America has everything to learn from Germany and nothing to learn from England, which was admitted to be largely true at that time, has long been absurd; but from now on it will be universally recognized to be absurd. The two nations, including scholars, will understand one another better. Oxford has lately announced its intention to confer the degree of Ph.D., which surely implies some abatement of the contempt for doctoral dissertation, and America, in its turn, may very well reciprocate by thinking more kindly of humanitarian studies.

Here in Canada, we are provincial both to London and New York, both to Yale and Harvard, and to Oxford and Cambridge. Thanks to Tory politics, and to the forty-ninth parallel, our economic growth and our thought have been alike retarded. A large margin of choice has been left to us. The course of action we pursue will be far-reaching in its consequences. What will happen in the remote future will depend upon what we do in the near future.



Many things are being urged upon us. The claims of a shallow and wealth-producing efficiency will be powerfully pressed. The education of the hand and eye, as against the mind and the judgment, will be persistently and persuasively recommended, and these are things that the man in the street can readily understand. The virtues of democracy as the insurance of happiness and peace are being forced upon our attention through the issues of the world war, and it may be forgotten or overlooked that the insurance of democracy is the possession by the state of a wise and thoughtful few who have learned to interpret the ideals of life to the multitude. The levelling tendencies of social liberty are apt to extend themselves to amusements, to literature, to education, and to thought and conduct. We shall sorely need the sobering effects of hard study, long mental discipline, serious thinking, and real consecration to usefulness, a need that Classical studies are known to have supplied in the past, and may supply in part in the future, if a sufficient number of people are determined that it shall be so.

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## MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION

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### MAGIC PROPERTIES OF NUMBERS.

A. H. D. Ross, M.A., M.F.

Ancient counting consisted in the enumeration of things actually seen, and it was only by slow degrees that the human mind grasped the idea of number being a property independent of the physical characteristics of the objects counted. Naturally, the first differentiation would be between the individual and those about him—between one and many—between a single unit and a group of such units. Then would come the mental process of combining one and one to form two, which may be regarded as *the first calculation ever made*. Anthropologists tell us that some primitive tribes overcome the difficulty of combining one and one by having two men stand apart as a concrete representation of the result; and, however absurd it may sound to us, to speak of the combination of one and one to form two as a “calculation” it should be remembered that once upon a time this conception involved real calculation.

In very early times it is quite possible that people did not count beyond five, and that a considerable number of objects were counted by multiples of five. In Homer’s *Odyssey*, Neptune’s seal keeper is represented as counting his sea-calves by fives, and even in the days of Aristotle, philosophers speculated regarding the universality of the methods of counting by fives or tens. The five fingers on each hand naturally led to the method of grouping fives, and to primitive minds the abstract idea of the number five was frequently expressed by means of the word for hand. In Sanskrit, for example, the word *pancha* is used to represent both the hand and five; whilst amongst the ancient Persians the word for hand was *pendji*, which means an outstretched hand. Even in Greek the word for five (*pente*) originally meant hand. Amongst the Eskimo tribes the word for five means “hand-full,” amongst the Mexican Aztecs “hand-depicted,” and amongst the Zulus “hand-finish.” Among the

Tamanoes of the Orinoco River, in Venezuela, the word for five means "whole hand," six "one on the other hand," and so on up to ten, which is signified by "both hands."

The method of grouping pairs leads to what is known as the "Binary Scale of Notation," and by fives to the "Quinary Scale," but it is worthy of note that most of the ancient civilizations were familiar with our present system of grouping by tens and powers of ten—doubtless because of the ten fingers on the hands. Amongst such widely separated nations as the Latins, Chinese, Finns, and Malays (having no linguistic relationships), we find the base of ten is used. Amongst the Egyptians, Babylonians, Chaldeans, Hindoos, and Chinese there was also a tendency to group by twelves and twenties, and to subdivide unit weights and measures by two, four, six, eight, twelve, twenty and sixty. Relics of this custom are met with in such expressions as "Twelve units make a dozen, twelve dozen make a gross, twelve gross make a great gross;" "Twelve lines make an inch, twelve inches make a foot;" "Twenty units make a gross;" "Sixty seconds make a minute, sixty minutes make an hour, twelve hours make a day," etc., etc.

#### SYSTEMS OF NOTATION.

The use of visible signs to represent numbers is not only older than writing, but is even older than the development of numerical language itself. Such symbols have two great advantages over gesture symbols because they are both permanent and capable of indefinite extension. Amongst the early Egyptians the first number symbols were perpendicular strokes, and the decimal system of grouping early made its appearance. Ten was represented by a kind of horseshoe, a hundred by a short spiral, a thousand by an urn, ten thousand by a pointing finger, one hundred thousand by a burbot, and a million by a man in the attitude of astonishment. Besides the hieroglyphics found on obelisks and the walls of temples, there was also a system of hieratic writing which was probably a degenerate form of the hieroglyphics evolved through long use and attempts at rapid writing. Still another form of writing numbers was the cuneiform system of the Babylonians, in which vertical arrowheads represented the units, horizontal arrows pointing to the left represented tens, and horizontal arrows pointing to the right represented hundreds. Amongst the early Greeks and Romans a

system of vertical strokes was used to represent the numbers as high as five and ten, and it is interesting to note that this same method of "tallying" logs in a lumber camp is used by the scaler.

In ancient Mexico the first number pictures used were combinations of circles representing the numbers from one to nineteen, and relics of this ancient method of numerical picture writing are to be found on dice and dominoes. Still another method of representing numbers was to use letters of the alphabet to represent certain numbers. This method was used by the Hebrews, Syrians, Greeks and Romans, but was rather cumbersome for purposes of calculation. The origin of our present system of notation is rather obscure, but appears to have originated amongst the Hindoo priests of India. From India these symbols found their way to Arabia; from there to Spain or Barbary; and thence to western Europe about 1,000 A.D.; but it was not until 1202 A.D. that Leonardo, of Pisa, explained the superiority of the Hindu-Arabic notation over the Roman notation. The introduction of this powerful system freed arithmetic from the reign of the abacus, and also paved the way for our well-known decimal system of representing the value of fractions.

#### MYSTIC PROPERTIES OF NUMBERS.

Somewhere about 530 B.C., Pythagoras of Samos founded a school in Southern Italy, and appears to have been acquainted with quite a few of the properties of positive integral numbers. By using dots to represent numbers and arranging them in symmetrical patterns he readily discovered what are known as "triangular," "square," and "oblong" numbers, and assigned mystical meanings to many of them. For example, one represented a point, two a line, three a surface, and four a solid. As  $1+2+3+4=10$  he regarded ten as the "Perfect Number," because it symbolized the summation of the point, line, surface, and solid. Again, by representing the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 by dots arranged in the form of a triangle we get the "Holy Tetractys," by which the Pythagoreans swore to preserve the secrets of their order. If 5, 6, 7, 8, etc., dots are successively added to the tetractys, it will be found that the total number of dots, from the vertex downward, is 1, 3, 6, 10, 15, 21, 28, 36, 45, etc.—which are known as the "Triangular" numbers. Pythagoras also noticed that the odd numbers may be arranged along the adjacent sides of a square, and that (beginning with one)



*the sum of any number of odd numbers is a square number.* Because of this tendency of the Greeks to regard arithmetic from a geometric standpoint, later writers gave the name *radix* to the side of a square, and each successive addition of odd numbers to the existing square was known as a *gnomon*—a term still retained in Euclid's second book of plane geometry. The Pythagoreans also arranged the even numbers in the form of rectangles, or "oblongs." *the sum of any number of odd numbers is a square number.*

For this reason the numbers 2, 6, 12, 20, etc., were known as "Oblong Numbers," and it is readily seen that they are exactly twice the corresponding triangular numbers. The neo-Pythagoreans greatly extended the mystical significance of numbers, and even asserted that numbers are the very substance of real things. Amongst every ancient people, and more especially in India, Chaldaea, Egypt and China, we find importance attached to numbers in connection with religious worship, and it is altogether likely that the conception of the sanctity and symbolic dignity of numbers reflected from the pages of the Old Testament passed over to the Israelites from their heathen neighbors.

#### MAGIC SQUARES.

Another good example of the magic powers attributed to numbers and geometrical figures is to be found in the veneration with which "Magic Squares" were regarded by primitive thinkers. These squares were constructed in India before the Christian era, and in some parts of India are still engraved on metal or stone and worn as a talisman; whilst in central Europe they formed part of a wide-spread mysticism during the Middle Ages.

*Simple* Magic Squares consist of numbers arranged in horizontal *rows* and vertical *columns*, so that the sum of the numbers in each row and column is always the same. In the accompanying diagram it will be noticed that the first nine numbers are arranged

3	5	7
8	1	6
4	9	2

Simple Magic Square

8	1	6
3	5	7
4	9	2

Compound Magic Square

so that the sum of the numbers in each row and column is 15. In this square the numbers 8, 1, 6 and 5, 1, 9 are known as *diameters*; whilst 4, 1, 7 and 3, 1, 2 are known as *diagonals*. The sum of the

numbers on one diagonal is 12 and on the other 6, instead of 15, but *an arrangement which gives the same total for every row, column, and diagonal gives what is known as a Compound Magic Square.* In the case of the nine digits 5 will always occupy the middle *cell*, and there are 8 possible arrangements for the remaining digits, one of which is given here.

About 1500 A.D., Albrecht Dürer wrote on Magic Squares, and about 1550 Michael Stifel and Adam Reise contributed some additional information, but the development of the theory is mainly due to the French mathematicians who lived between 1600 and 1700. In 1816 Mollweide collected the scattered rules in his *De quadratis magicis*, which is distinguished by its scientific treatment and simplicity of expression.

#### PERFECT NUMBERS.

*A Perfect Number* is one equal to the sum of its "aliquot parts." For example  $1 + 2 + 3 = 6$ ; hence 6 is a perfect number. The perfect numbers discovered by Euclid are included in the formula  $2^{n-1}(2^n - 1)$ ; provided that  $2^n - 1$  is a prime number. From this formula it is evident that the theory of perfect numbers depends directly upon Mersenne's numbers. Mersenne's theorem is that  $2^n - 1$  is a prime number when  $n = 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 61, 127$  and 257; the corresponding perfect numbers being 1, 6, 28, 496, etc.

#### FRACTIONS

Primitive fractions were concrete things—aliquot parts of standard measures, weights or coins—but soon there arose the idea of a fraction as the *ratio* of one number to another. In this connection it is interesting to notice that the Greek word for ratio was *logos*, which explains why fractional arithmetic was known as *logistic arithmetic* for a period of almost two thousand years. Amongst the Egyptians fractions were frequently expressed as the sum of other fractions with unity as a numerator. Thus,  $\frac{2}{9}$  was represented by  $\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{18}$ ;  $\frac{2}{9}$  by  $\frac{1}{24} + \frac{1}{63} + \frac{1}{74} + \frac{1}{232}$ ; etc. The Romans generally expressed their fractions with the common denominator 12 or multiples of 12, and had special names for such fractions as  $\frac{1}{24}$ ,  $\frac{1}{12}$ ,  $\frac{1}{8}$ , etc.

To the Hindoos there occurred the idea of a common denominator which can be expressed as a power of ten—thus enabling us to perform operations with fractions just as easily as the corresponding operations can be performed with whole numbers.

From the positive whole numbers of the earliest times to the fractional numbers of the Egyptians and Greeks there was a slow and intermittent progress towards the idea of ratios. Newton defined *number as the abstract ratio of one quantity to another of the same kind*. The idea of an abstract ratio being involved it is therefore necessary that the *unit of measurement* should be either stated or understood before it is possible to represent any given quantity by means of a number. For example, the ratio of a dozen eggs to one egg is represented by the number twelve; of a day to a week by one-seventh; of the diagonal of a square to its edge by  $\sqrt{2}$ ; of the area of a circle to that of the square enclosing it by  $\frac{\pi}{4}$ ; etc.

#### INCOMMEASURABLES.

Pythagoras is said to have known that the ratio of the diagonal of a square to its side cannot be expressed exactly. In time, this idea of "*no ratio*" gave rise to the word *ir-rational*. Irrational numbers, or *incommensurable numbers*, may therefore be defined as *numbers whose exact values cannot be represented by fractions*. To the Pythagoreans they were numbers of deep mystery—symbols of the unspeakable. About 410 B.C. Theodorus of Cyrene proved the irrationality of the square roots of 3, 5, 7, 8, 10 and 17. About 270 B.C. Euclid (Book X, 22-117) discussed every possible variety of lines which can be represented by  $\sqrt{\sqrt{a \pm b}}$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  represent commensurable lines, and makes 27 species of such lines—which is striking evidence of his great genius. In 1544 A.D. Michael Stifel devoted the first two books of his *Arithmetica Integra* to a discussion of surds and incommensurables and adopted the symbol  $\sqrt{\phantom{x}}$  which is a corruption of the initial letter of the Latin word *radix*, which means a root.

Gauss (1777-1855) was the first to prove that *every rational integral equation in one unknown possesses a root*, and gave three distinct proofs of it, a problem which had baffled the attempts of all mathematicians before his time. This root, when real, is usually incommensurable. From the time of Euclid to very recent times the Theory of Incommensurables remained untouched. Instead of approaching the subject from the geometrical point of view Weirstrass, Dedekind, Cantor and Hobson have built up a

purely arithmetical theory of surds which fortifies the basis of mathematical analysis in a most marvellous manner.

### NEGATIVE NUMBERS.

In the process of subtracting one number from another it was soon observed that the *minuend* is sometimes greater than the *subtrahend*; in which case the operation was deemed "impossible" and the result was described as a "fictitious" number until the fourth century, A.D., when the Hindoo priests likened it to a case of credits and debits in which the latter exceeded the former. Thus it appears that the negative sign is simply a symbol for the *result* of an operation which cannot be carried out with actually existing groups of things.

To Descartes (1596-1650) occurred the brilliant idea of representing algebraic equations geometrically—the positive values of the quantities involved representing measurements in agreed directions from straight lines at right angles to each other and the negative values measurements in the *opposite* directions. *This linking up of algebra and geometry was one of the greatest mathematical discoveries ever made and forced upon mathematicians the conviction that negative integers must be regarded as numbers.* Quantity, as such, is neither positive nor negative, but *quantitative relationships* may be either positive or negative; that is to say, numbers may be either positive or negative.

### IMAGINARY NUMBERS.

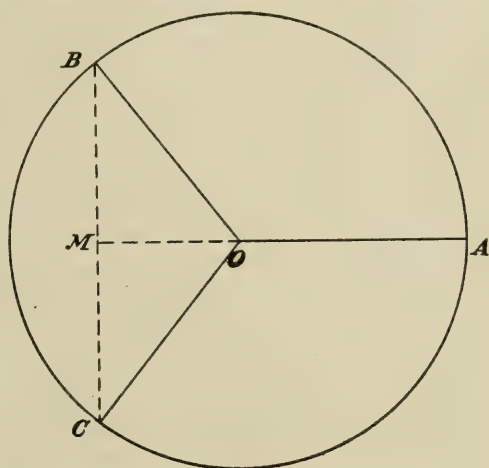
Not until 1685 was a satisfactory explanation given as to the meaning of  $+\sqrt{-1}$ , and  $-\sqrt{-1}$ . In that year John Wallis, Savilian Professor of Geometry at Oxford, suggested a graphic interpretation. Just as  $+1$  means a unit distance measured to the *right* of the origin and  $-1$  a unit distance to the *left*, so Wallis took  $+\sqrt{-1}$  to mean a unit distance measured *upwards*, and  $-\sqrt{-1}$  to mean a unit distance measured *downwards* from it. From this it is evident that *the symbol  $\sqrt{-1}$  involves the idea of a line being rotated until it is at right angles to its original position.* The choice of the name "imaginary" for the symbol  $\sqrt{-1}$  is unfortunate, because it is imaginary only in the same sense as fractions, irrational numbers and negative numbers are imaginary. Just as  $\frac{3}{4}$ ,  $\sqrt{2}$  and  $-7$  are symbols devised for the purpose of



representing the *results* of operations, so  $\sqrt{-1}$  is a symbol representing a definite operation. One after another, the fractional, irrational, negative and imaginary numbers have gained an entrance into the number system of algebra. No one of them was accepted until its correspondence to some actually existing thing had been shown. Fractional and "irrational" numbers originated in relations among actually existing things, and naturally made good their position at an earlier date than negative and "imaginary" numbers which grew immediately out of equations and for which a "real" interpretation had to be sought.

### COMPLEX NUMBERS.

In solving the equation  $x^3 - 1 = 0$ , we find that the three values of  $x$  which satisfy the equation are  $+1$ ;  $-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$ ;  $-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$ . The geometric interpretation of these values of  $x$  can be easily understood from a diagram of a circle in which three radii  $OA$ ,  $OB$ ,  $OC$  make angles of 120 degrees with one another. The radius



$OA$  is clearly the  $+1$  value of  $x$ , in which we move in a straight line from  $O$  to  $A$ . To get from  $O$  to  $B$  we can first go from  $O$  to  $M$  ( $-\frac{1}{2}$ ) and then up to  $B$  a distance equal to  $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$ , and to get from  $O$  to  $C$  we can first go from  $O$  to  $M$  ( $-\frac{1}{2}$ ) and then down to  $C$  a distance equal to  $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$ . Thus it appears that the "real" part  $-\frac{1}{2}$  means a movement along the  $x$ -axis and the "imaginary" part  $\sqrt{-\frac{3}{4}}$  means a movement of  $\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$  parallel to the  $y$ -axis. For this

reason  $-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{-\frac{3}{2}}$  and  $-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{-\frac{3}{2}}$  are called "complex" numbers with "real" and "imaginary" parts.

Complex numbers were introduced into trigonometry by De Moivre whose well known theorem is of such great service in mathematical analysis, but not until the time of Gauss was their nature well understood. Practically all our modern theories of complex numbers are based upon Gauss's researches which have shown that *it is possible to replace every geometrical problem by a corresponding analytical one involving only numbers and their relations*. In other words, every geometrical construction has its counterpart in the determination of a number, or a finite set of numbers, which shall satisfy certain prescribed relations relatively to a given set of numbers. For example, Gauss showed that *if  $n$  is a prime number and  $n-1 = p^a \cdot q^b \cdot r^c \dots$ , then it is always possible to make the solution of  $x^n - 1 = 0$  depend upon that of equations of lower degree*. From this it appears that the solution of  $x^{17} - 1 = 0$  depends upon the solution of four equations of the second degree, and consequently that it is possible to inscribe in a circle a regular polygon of 17 sides by Euclidean methods—a problem deemed impossible before the time of Gauss.

#### TRANSCENDENTAL NUMBERS.

Transcendental numbers are of such a nature that they cannot be the roots of algebraic equations in which the coefficients are rational numbers. Trigonometric functions, inverse trigonometric functions, logarithms,  $e$ , and many other functions appearing only in the higher analysis do not satisfy any equation of the form  $ax^n + bx^{n-1} + cx^{n-2} + \dots = 0$ , and, consequently the values of these functions cannot be calculated by a finite number of additions, subtractions, multiplications and divisions, but depend upon an infinity of such operations, indicated by means of a power series—as, for example,

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \text{etc.}$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \text{etc.}$$

In 1840 Liouville showed that neither  $e$  nor  $e^2$  can be the root of an integral quadratic equation with rational coefficients, and in 1873 Charles Hermite proved the same thing by means of con-

tinued fractions. In this same year Cantor gave a more concise proof of the existence of transcendental numbers; which include not only  $e$  and  $\pi$ , but almost certainly, the Eulerian constant 0.5772156649. In June 1882 Lindemann, starting from the relationship  $e^{\pi i} = -1$ , showed that  $\pi$  is a transcendental number. In 1885 Weirstrass simplified the proof given by Lindemann, and further demonstrations have been given since by Hilbert, Klein, Hurwitz, Gordan, Stieltjis, Mertens and Vahlen.

#### SOME REMARKABLE RELATIONSHIPS.

Before closing this paper I should like to call your attention to some remarkable relationships existing between the circular measure of an angle, its cosine, its sine, the base of Napierian logarithms, and the square root of  $-1$  which is usually indicated by the letter  $i$ .

Instead of regarding trigonometry as a mere appendage of astronomy and geometry, Euler treated it as a branch of mathematical analysis and showed that the exponential and trigonometric functions are connected by the relation  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ , which plays so great a role in the modern theory of functions. Next to De Moivre's theorem, this relationship is one of the most important of modern analysis. In fact it furnishes a very neat proof of De Moivre's theorem itself; for by finding the  $n$ th power of each side of the equation, when we have  $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = (e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta} = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta$ , which is De Moivre's theorem. Other interesting relationships can be developed from the formulae  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ , and  $e^{-i\theta} = \cos \theta - i \sin \theta$  by substituting for  $\theta$  the values  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\frac{3\pi}{2}$  and  $2\pi$ ; when we get  $e^{\frac{1}{2}\pi i} = i$ ;  $e^{\pi i} = -1$ ;  $e^{\frac{3}{2}\pi i} = -i$ ; and  $e^{2\pi i} = +1$ . The last of these equations may be written in the form  $e^{2\pi i} - 1 = 0$ , and is especially noteworthy because it involves the most notable set of five numbers in the whole range of mathematics.

In a hurried and sketchy way I have traced the development of the idea of number from the primitive counting of concrete objects to the abstract idea of integral or whole numbers, methods of grouping and reckoning, systems of notation, fractions, surds, negative numbers, imaginary numbers, complex numbers, transcendental numbers, and a few of the many remarkable ways in which certain numbers are related to one another, and feel that I

cannot do better than close by quoting the words of Gauss, admittedly the great master of the science of number, who says "The higher arithmetic presents us with an inexhaustible store of interesting truths,—of truths, too, which are not isolated, but stand in a close internal connection, and, between which, as our knowledge increases, we are continually discovering new and sometimes wholly unexpected ties. A great part of its theories derive an additional charm from the peculiarity that important propositions, with the impress of simplicity upon them, are often discovered by induction, and yet are of so profound a character that we cannot find their demonstration till after many vain attempts, and it is often by tedious and artificial process, while the simpler methods have long remained concealed".

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## ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION

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### *ECONOMIC FACTORS IN CANADIAN HISTORY.*

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The purpose of this brief paper is to make a plea for greater attention in our schools and colleges to the economic and social side of our history. A knowledge of the way the men and women of the past lived and worked is essential if we are to have a real and vital understanding of how Canada began and how it has grown to be what it is.

The writer of history faces a dilemma. He cannot, of course, record every minute fact, every detailed happening in every community in the period of which he writes. He must pick and choose. Too often his choice has been restricted to two lines. In the first place, the historian has usually concluded that certain sides of human life are the only ones important and dignified enough to warrant recording, particularly the political and military sides of history. In the second place, he has concluded that since he cannot treat of all the usual and common things, he should therefore deal only with the unusual, with the spectacular and dramatic crises in a people's life. Now, so far as they go, these methods are wholly defensible. Political and military history deal with two great fields of human endeavor, fields in which men acted in masses and in close relation with the state and all its fortunes. The unusual, again, must be emphasized. There are single lives, single events, which have turned the whole course of human history, and these the chronicler of the past must make known to us. But the one thing he should do and the other he should not leave undone. The writer and the teacher of history must not only picture for us the genius and the hero, but he should also give us a glimpse of the way the ordinary men and women of the time lived in their daily round, give us an understanding of the background of the scene on which the great crises were staged. If this is not done, the knowledge of the past we acquire will be a superficial travesty of history.

Place should be found, for example, for some discussion of the various industries our forefathers followed, and of the bearing of their work on their character and on the nation's growth. At the threshold of our history the fur trade and the fishery are usually

given notice, it is true, though perhaps we might stress still more the importance of the beaver and the cod in shaping the destinies of nations, and might emphasize also the connection between the fur-trading activities of the early French settlers and their exploring achievements, their Indian alliances, their immediate strength and their final weakness in war. But why should we not also follow the farmer, picture his battle with the forest, note the change in crops, methods, machinery, as markets and training and time changed? The introduction of the reaper is surely as important as the Double Shuffle, and the coming of the cheese factory to Ontario or the development of Red Fife or Marquis wheat as noteworthy as the question who was premier in 1862. So with lumbering, with manufacturing.

Or it might be the social side of past life that would be emphasized. Most of our histories give a passing glance at the customs and manners of pioneer life, but we might well bide a bit longer. What manner of houses our great-grandfathers in Upper Canada lived in, what furniture they used, what clothes they wore, how fashions changed or did not change, what sort of schools and school teachers and school books fell to their lot, what chance they had of church service, what bees or festivities broke the monotony of backwoods life, are all matters that will give interest and reality to the child's study of the past, and matters on which the traditions of the older folks in the community can often throw much light.

The methods and policies of land settlement require more than passing attention. As a rule it is only when such questions get into politics that they are given any heed; the Clergy Reserves have been given ten times more attention than all the other questions of land policy in our history. And yet this question and the allied question of immigration were of immense importance both to the individual settler and to the nation, and if time permits, it is well to refer to the medley of land policies we have tried, the feudal system in the seigniories, free grants for services or for political pull, sale at fixed price, disposal through land companies, the free homestead policy, and all the other variations. It is of interest also, and thanks to such accessible discussions as those of Rogers or Casselman, easy, to trace the settlement of the province and of one's own neighborhood especially, supplementing the general study by some old letters or journals of the settlement days, noting the place of origin

of the settlers, the reasons for their coming, the manner of their introduction to the new country, and any other special incidents.

Or again, might not more attention be given to the question of transportation and its bearing on the economic structure and the political development of the country? The lack of roads in early times meant isolation, meant self-contained and self-sufficient households, primitive but resourceful ways of working. The building of roads, corduroy, clay, gravel, macadam, or plank is an event of first importance in the history of any section. The part the canals played in the forties in surmounting the barriers which had kept these backwoods provinces from trade and contact with the outside world might well be given something of the attention it received in their own day. But it is especially to the connection between the railways and the history of Canada that I should like to recall your attention. On the political side, the nation-making side, the railway is the most important factor in our history. Without the railway Canada would not exist to-day. Without it, it would not have been possible to stake out this half continent from ocean to ocean, to weld it together, under one rule, to bring about the constant intercourse, the exchange of ideas and of people and of goods essential to making the country one. Without the Intercolonial, the union between the Maritime Provinces and the Canadas could not have been achieved; without the Canadian Pacific, the West could not have been held and developed and made one with the East. So too on the economic side. We might well note how the railways opened markets, stirred up speculation, booms, panics, how it made possible an elaborate division of labor among different communities and different men, or how it levelled prices and levelled manners throughout wide areas.

These are only indications of the wealth of interest which awaits the writer and the teacher who seek to make live for the present generation not merely the spectacular sides, the headline phases, of our forefathers, but the every-day forces and factors that shaped and colored their way of life. The immigrant and the pioneer, the lumberman and the fisherman and the railway builder, must be recognized more and more as figures which demand our full and grateful attention.

*NATIONALITY AND THE WAR.*

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Among the conditions which rendered the war possible was the fact that neither the boundaries of the various States in Europe nor their internal constitutions harmonized with the aspirations of their constituent races or secured to them just and equal treatment. Among the conditions without which no peace can be durable is the removal of existing causes of international unrest, mainly by establishing political boundaries resting on the principle of nationality or the consent of the governed. This war is bringing within the range of practical politics the fuller realization of the principle that States should, as far as possible, be organized on a basis of nationality. If politically severed races are reunited and subject races are given autonomy, this course will be just and desirable in the interests of these races and will be advantageous to civilization and the peace of the world. Recognition of nationality enriches civilization with the varied contributions which each race makes to the higher life of the world, and is the best safeguard against war. Almost every outbreak of war in the last hundred years has been due to unsatisfied aspirations for national unity or for freedom. The present war is a colossal illustration of this. The political creed of the Allies is a creed of diversity, "the right to live"; the German creed is a creed of uniformity enforced by "a will to power."

Nationality at its highest implies community of blood, of language with its distinctive ideas, and of tradition with the memory of achievements and sufferings in the past. There must also be a consciousness of these elements and a willingness to preserve them even at the risk of death. A nationality is always striving to become a nation. A nation may be defined as a nationality which has acquired self-government, a nationality plus a state. For the organization of a state, nationality is the strongest and most natural basis. In parts of Russia and Germany and all of Austria-Hungary and the Balkan Peninsula, the political boundaries disregard the lines of demarcation between nationalities. Austria-Hungary is the only great State in Europe which has no national basis. To it the triumph of the national principle after the war would mean dismemberment. But without such dismemberment and without the



creation of a new Southern Slav State—a Greater Serbia—there can be no lasting peace in Europe and no destruction of the power of Prussian militarism. A peace based on the final readjustment of the political boundaries of Europe, on the just and sound basis of nationality, would involve: the restoration by Germany of all invaded territory, the expulsion of the Turk from Europe, the option given to Alsace to rejoin France if she wished it, the reunion of Danish Schleswig into Denmark, the reunion of all the Poles, the return of the Trentino and the western part of the Istrian peninsula to Italy, the autonomy of Bohemia, and the creation of a Greater Roumania and a Greater Serbia. The Magyars would retain the Central Hungarian plain and Austrian Germans might either enter the German Empire or form a new confederation with Southern Germans. Such a reconstruction of the map of Europe would enrich civilization, would ensure peace, and would not crush the legitimate aspirations of any race. This principle of variety in unity underlies the whole structure of the British Empire, and is one chief source of its strength.

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## SOME ASPECTS OF THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH COMPOSITION.

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The work of the teacher of English Composition is to train pupils to express their ideas in clear, intelligible sentences so put together as to please the ear, avoid offence and satisfy the requirements of good taste. It is hardly fair to require that this subject should deal to any great extent with the ideas to be expressed; it should rather aid in their correct expression. We assume that the pupil has some thoughts in his mind. Our work is to enable him to arrange them in the best order and express them in the best way.

Our problem with the beginner is to get him to say something; and so long as what he says is fairly grammatical and free from slang, I would not criticize severely. He may probably delight in "soft, white, fleecy clouds," or in the "dark, gloomy, threatening" variety; his fields are always "carpeted with lovely green grass"; his sunshine is "beautiful, bright, golden"; his wars are "bloody and fearful"; his storms "rage violently"; his "exquisitely beautiful" views "can be seen"; his soldiers never die—they "make the supreme sacrifice." But be it remembered that it is something for him to be able to write at all. It is something for him to have increased his vocabulary, even by adjectives, and his clear, terse Saxon speech of the future will be far more effective when it is deliberately chosen as better than something else which he knows, than it would be if it were used of necessity because he knows no other.

What about the place of the written plan? It is of course a valuable exercise. All really well written work has some plan, whether written or not. But it should not be too clearly visible in a finished essay, just as scaffolding is not to be left up after a building is completed. Are we not all familiar with this kind of work? "*Introduction*. I am going to write in this Composition something about coal, that most useful article." "*Body*" follows with something more or less readable until we reach "Paragraph 3. In the last paragraph we showed the uses of coal; let us now consider how it was formed in the earth." The climax is reached when we find "*Conclusion*. From the foregoing remarks it will be seen that coal is very useful, and that it is indeed indispensable."

When such essays appear, my own practice is to forbid the use of the terms Introduction, Body, Conclusion, and to show that these words mean nothing more nor less than Beginning, Middle and End. The "Body" is probably all that is required, if it is begun and ended as it should be. Let us teach the young writer to begin at once, to avoid circumlocution, and, when he has finished—to stop. Alas! even great writers are not free from unnecessary Conclusions. What about the last lines of *Enoch Arden*?

Our pupil's general knowledge is all the time increasing, and his work in Composition helps his other studies, and is helped by them. It is now customary to disparage Grammar and almost to deny its right to a place in the High School programme; but is not its neglect a direct cause of faulty punctuation and slovenly style? We find participial phrases mistaken for sentences, and other supposed sentences which begin well, but end—up in the air. Some years ago, when visiting an Art School, I was surprised to see the students busy drawing bones, skulls, skeletons. Surely you do not make pictures of those? "If we do not study anatomy," I was told, "our figure drawing will probably be incorrect. We need to know where the bones are, and how they are shaped; then we cover them with flesh and with drapery." Does not the study of English Grammar bear somewhat the same relation to Composition that anatomy does to figure painting? We do not want dry bones in the finished product, but the bones must be there or the figure will be out of drawing.

Other studies are felt to give valuable subject matter for Compositions. Now the chief difficulty of the young writer is to find material for writing. If asked to give an oral composition, he is dumb, and when he sits down to write he has nothing to say. Yet if he is not giving a Composition his tongue wags fast enough, and he has little difficulty in finding plenty to write in answer to questions on various subjects or in a letter, when he wishes to tell of something which interests him. This difficulty of finding material or suggesting subjects appears to be a trouble to some teachers, if one may judge by the numerous lists of "suggested subjects for Compositions" appearing from time to time. Is not the chief cause of our difficulty that we do not apprehend the limitations of the pupil's knowledge and experience? Hence we conceive it a part of our duty as teachers of Composition to set him at work to dis-

cover information about a subject of which he has no previous knowledge, before letting him begin to write. I would not be misunderstood about this. By all means let us teach the pupil how to gather information by consulting books and by his own observation. I merely say that this work is not Composition in the strict sense of the word. Learning how to consult books and libraries is most useful training, and should no doubt be taken in hand by every teacher wherever possible. But what of the small places where books are few and libraries inaccessible, where the pupil must simply make the best use of what he has? I submit that this acquiring information on a variety of subjects, however interesting and instructive, is hardly a necessary part of the work of teaching Composition in the limited time at our disposal in a High School, and we have enough to do in teaching the use of the material within the pupil's reach, even within the limits of his own knowledge, without sending him to read encyclopædias.

Again, Composition may be successfully connected with History by historical and biographical essays. The danger is lest the two subjects should be confused, and credit given to the Composition for historical accuracy rather than for literary excellence. You are studying the war, and the pupil gives you something like "Malice in Kulturland!" As a Composition it is worth 100, as History —?

The subject most naturally connected with Composition is certainly English Literature. Is it not best perhaps to try to correlate the work in Composition with the study of Prose Literature? Examine carefully in class the work of a good writer and base the Composition exercises on the discoveries made. Thus we may deduce rules as required. For teaching paragraph structure some of Washington Irving's Sketches are invaluable, and instead of consulting Macaulay for examples of faulty English we may even succeed in leading our young people to see what is admirable in our best writers, with a view to improving their own style.

The principles upon which this may be done are clearly laid down in "Composition from Models," though the book, as a whole, is perhaps rather difficult except for senior classes. I should like to call attention, however, to the valuable suggestions given there for Composition writing on a description of a Storm. If such work as this could be extended we might have a useful text-book on Composition. Here the question arises: Is such a text-book to be



desired? There seems to be general dissatisfaction with the present book, and a fairly general opinion that it is useful only for Lower School work, chiefly for punctuation rules, capitals, letter and business forms, and other matters of a mechanical nature.

Whether we use a text-book or not, there seems no question that the great way of learning to do is by doing. The best way of learning to write English is by writing. Hence it is desirable that as much writing as possible should be done consistently with correctness. There can hardly be much profit from writing essays unless the essays are read and the mistakes corrected. Moreover, the laborious reading and correcting by the teacher has no value unless we can secure the pupil's understanding and correction of the mistakes pointed out. Not only should a pupil be required to correct mistakes, but his corrections should be examined by the teacher and he should be made to do them properly. This applies of course chiefly to home essays, which he must learn to write carefully. He will gather his material, arrange it, prepare his plan, write his rough draft, correct it, make his fair copy and bring in his work, presumably done as well as he can do it. How often?

Now the chief reason for the unpopularity of Composition with teachers is that essay reading makes overwhelming demands upon one's time out of school. Would it not be greatly to the advantage of the pupil if he were required to write a home essay every week or at least every two weeks? But if such essays have to be read and marked, some rearrangement of the teacher's work is necessary. One of our Toronto teachers stated that she had made a solemn resolution not to work at Essay Reading more than two hours a day out of school. Another said: "We teachers of English should be permitted to retire at twelve o'clock noon with our Composition books." There was a time when teachers who ventured to protest at the requirements made of them were told, "You should have considered that when you chose to teach English." I remember a time when one teacher was obliged to read 120 home essays every week and to teach nine lessons every day. A kindly High School Inspector came to the rescue and informed the Principal that no teacher should have more than two classes with thirty pupils in each, and that a home essay should not be required oftener than once a fortnight. This divided the teacher's work by four, and the Inspector went on to say that even then, Composition being the most exacting

subject in the High School programme, special allowance should be made in the Time Table by allotting vacant periods to these teachers. "Oh, yes, study periods," quoth the Principal. "I mean vacant periods, not study periods," persisted the Inspector.

In our own school the plan has been maintained, for the past ten years or so, of giving to each teacher of Composition three periods with a class, and as many vacant periods during the week. This keeps the work from being too heavy, and renders essay reading possible. The plan is respectfully commended to the attention of Principals and other authorities. It is desirable that there should also be more opportunity than there is now, or than seems possible, for personal conference between teacher and pupil, for although some errors, chiefly those which are of general occurrence, may profitably be discussed with the class, yet most pupils need personal advice and assistance from an instructor. Five or ten minutes' explanation or friendly talk would often clear up many a difficulty; but it is difficult to get time for this. I suppose we could all use much more time in teaching Composition to our present classes; the question is how to make the best use of what we have.

The pupil also writes a number of Class Essays. It is well that he should learn to write rapidly under stress, and it is also advisable that some work should be done under the direct supervision of the teacher. Thus it is often found well to have a single paragraph constructed in class, that the nature of paragraph structure may be learned. A topic may be given, or a topic sentence, and a paragraph required. Sometimes, especially with beginners, a whole essay may be worked out piecemeal in class in the course of a few lessons, and then the whole be required as a home essay.

The value of Abstracts is real. The writing of them is found to be a most useful means of correcting the tendency to "copy" which affords us much trouble. Very often this copying comes not from any dishonest motive, but from ignorance and incapacity. We send a pupil to certain books for information. He gets the information in an Encyclopædia, for instance, and writes it down, giving us the article as it appears in the book consulted. But he should express it in his own words. He doesn't know how; he has never been taught how. Let us accustom him then to writing abstracts in class work. A few of these read aloud in class will be a most useful correction for this form of work, and a quite sufficient one. This

is perhaps the only necessary correction for any class work. Some of us find it useful to have special books for class essays, and have them in the school in custody of the teacher, who may glance over them at any time to see their general character.

The remaining work done in class is the Oral Composition. Its value is now generally recognized in developing in pupils the power of expressing their thoughts clearly and pleasantly. Its purpose is not to produce great orators. The average High School pupil will not be a great orator, but he may learn to express himself properly when he has to speak, to enunciate distinctly, clearly, pleasantly; to assume a correct attitude of body, to hold up his head, look people in the face, keep his hands out of his pockets and his feet still.

Kindly criticism will generally be valued as helpful, and pupils begin early to feel the benefit of it. A very few years after we began to teach Oral Composition, our Cadet Instructor told me that he had seen its usefulness. "At our Cadet banquets, the boys have something to say—nothing very much, perhaps, but they have ceased to look sheepish when asked to speak, and they do say something."

In the days of long ago, when the curriculum was less crowded than it is now, and the regular time for each lesson was nominally at least one hour, there was time for the careful teacher to insist upon correct form for every class answer, and often to require oral answers of considerable length. The shortening of the lesson period made it impossible to require these answers, taking up five minutes or so to give, and some of us noticed a resulting loss in power of expression. One inquired where that matter should now receive attention, and was told, "In the Composition Class." I began by asking pupils to tell me stories, then historical anecdotes, to explain how something is made or done, then to debate.

Of course Oral Composition is subject to much the same rules as written Composition. It is even more necessary to avoid circumlocution at the beginning, and when the end comes, to stop; but it soon becomes necessary to distinguish Oral Composition from recitation of a written Composition. I found it well to abolish the use of notes and to refuse to accept memorized work. It may be true that even the best public speakers do memorize what they have first written, but they do not stop and hesitate if they happen to forget, then turn round and say, "I forget what comes next." We have all

seen what sometimes happens when a Chairman suddenly calls upon Mr. Blank to "say a few words." If the latter is really not expecting what is coming, we say, "Poor Mr. Blank!" In how many cases we are obliged to transfer our commiseration to Mr. Blank's hearers! Now it is for just such emergencies that pupils may be prepared by *unprepared* Oral Compositions. Occasionally, not very often, I introduce what we call a "continued story." Some pupil is called upon to tell us a story. He stops in the middle of a sentence, naming somebody else who must finish the sentence and continue the story. The fact that all this is looked upon as a game and a huge joke does not lessen its value. "It certainly teaches you to think quickly while you are on your feet," was a remark made by one of our former pupils in speaking of these exercises some years later. Impromptu speeches, short as you please, but upon some subject not made known to the pupil till he is facing the class, have something of the same effect. The subjects for these should be commonplace objects, and will suggest themselves very quickly—Skating, Gardening, Country Life, Pencils, etc.

No doubt much that has been said is open to question and to much variety of opinion. May I venture to suggest four topics, among others, as calling for discussion:

1. The text-book.
  2. Making the best use of our time for reading essays.
  3. Personal conference.
  4. Impromptu oral work.
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## COMMERCIAL SECTION

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### THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

T. W. OATES, LONDON, ONT.

*To the Members of the Commercial Section.*—I wish to thank you for the honor you conferred upon me by electing me as your President for the past year. It affords me much pleasure to extend to you a most hearty welcome to this our annual meeting of this Association.

It is a pleasure to welcome and offer greetings to the older members who have worked in the past for the welfare of the Association. And to those who are with us for the first time I offer a welcome, and extend the hope that you may enjoy yourselves so much this time that you will become permanently interested and regular members.

In the past I am afraid that many of us have shown ourselves impractical business people, from the fact that we have not taken advantage of organization, which is the fundamental principle of successful business. So this year we have tried to prepare a programme suitable for all, one containing something of interest to each one, no matter what his particular line may be.

At this point allow me to thank all who so kindly consented to help us. I have no doubt you will appreciate the good things they have in store for you.

In these days of commercial and economic revolution, it seems of vital importance that we who strive to prepare the pillars and supports of the commercial community should be interested in what the future has in store for us, or more especially what we have in store for the future. Therefore, I wish to draw your attention for a few minutes to the following topics:

- (a) Present defects in our System.
- (b) Changes which might help the Curriculum.
- (c) The Future Commercial Teacher.

You will agree with me that the Commercial Department does

not receive due recognition. It is a side-line seldom pushed forward. The average Principal to-day thinks more of his Matriculation and Normal Entrance results than those of the Commercial Department. He is always ready to provide libraries, maps, models, or apparatus for his English and History, Art, or Science departments. They must be up-to-date—but in how many schools in this Province can you find complete Commercial equipment? In seventy-five per cent. of our schools you cannot find even suitable commercial desks. Why? Because the Commercial, up to the present, has not had the sympathy of a large number of Principals or other teachers. In their classic-loving natures there is nothing of the Commercial. It is an established fact that the average teacher is a poor business man. He has no time for such mundane affairs. However, there is a change in some quarters. Some at least are beginning to see the error of their ways.

This apathy is to be regretted when the need of vocational and commercial education is greater than ever, and becoming more so every year. The High School Curriculum of to-day is a colossal failure for eighty per cent. of our population.

Statistics tell us that over ninety per cent. of our people at the age of sixty-five are dependent on friends, relatives or charity. If you were to choose any hundred young men of twenty-one years, and then notice the same hundred as they advance for the next forty-four years, you would find the following strange history. Thirty-six would die before reaching sixty-five, one would be rich; four would be comfortably well-off; five more would be earning a decent living, and fifty-four would be dependent on others.

This will apply to any one hundred young men, so we may take it as the index of our economic life. Two-thirds of our children never enter High Schools. They go out into life equipped with either a complete or partial Public School Education. Their average wage increases about five per cent. between twenty-one and thirty-two years of age. And what of those who leave our High Schools after a full or partial course? We find the same condition applies to them. And yet our educators go on teaching Latin, Greek or Higher Mathematics when the demand is for an education that will help to earn a living. Our present High School curriculum is planned for the colleges, and 95 per cent. of our High School students never go to college, but go out into life equipped with a

smattering of subjects that should be and are very soon forgotten. But in the game of life, the survival of the fittest, they are severely handicapped. Should we not shape the education to suit the youth of our country, not try to fit the youth to the educational system?

There are three avenues of escape from these conditions, or at least three means of alleviation of the difficulty.

First—Standardize the Commercial Diploma Examinations, and make them a Departmental Examination. This might arouse the interest of Principals and School Boards.

Second—Open Commercial High Schools in every city or town. Give there a complete course in Commerce and Finance, one that will fit a pupil, not to be an office drudge, but for the position “higher up.” For I believe that, as at present conducted, the Commercial Department is not an unqualified success.

Third—Cut out some of the “frills” from our present High School curriculum and substitute therefor a course in business training, or at least make this course optional even for Normal Entrance, or Junior Matriculation. At present this course is suggested for the preparation of future Commercial Specialists. The Universities are also recognizing this difficulty by offering courses in Finance.

Now, let us turn to the present Commercial Curriculum. It would be splendid if all boys and girls were similarly constituted, if the commercial needs of all localities were identical. Here, again, it is a case of attempting to shape the pupil to the curriculum, not the curriculum to the need of the pupil. Some of our Provincial Educators have said that uniformity was the curse of our present educational system. We give the same education to all; all are compelled to use the same texts, the same time-table, etc. There is no room for diversity or initiative.

Investigation has shown:

First—That training for boys and girls should be different in content and emphasis.

Second—That a girl needs chiefly specific training in some one line of work. She needs a full High School course for its general educational value and for maturity. Immaturity puts her at a disadvantage.

Third—That a boy needs chiefly general education, putting special emphasis on writing, figuring and spelling, general informa-

tion and the development of certain qualities and standards. A boy's training looks forward to clerical work and business administration; so also should his education be shaped with this end in view. Clerical positions for boys cover a variety of work and cannot be definitely anticipated, and so cannot be specifically trained for. But certain fundamental needs are common to all boys' training, and, for those who cannot remain at school, should be pressed into less than a four years' course. Immaturity in a boy is not a great disadvantage. Most of the specialized training for boys should be given at Night Continuation Classes. Boys, as a rule, begin work younger than girls, and are expected to show their calibre in junior positions. Their line of promotion is from one line of business to another, and their advancement depends largely on adaptability and fundamental qualities more than on specific training. The majority of men and boys are clerks or bookkeepers; few are stenographers or machine operators. The wideness of their opportunities makes a definite preliminary training impossible.

Fourth—That girls are expected to enter business with specialized training and to become more proficient in their chosen lines. They are not expected to follow any line of promotion from one line of business to another. The majority of women workers are stenographers or machine operators. Very few are in administrative positions.

Therefore, it would appear that the best course for boys is the Bookkeeping Course, and for girls the Stenography Course.

The more efficient the stenographer is before leaving the school the better, and no pains should be spared along dictation and transcription lines.

For the bookkeeper, accuracy and neatness are the all-important requirements. Much of the bookkeeping in actual business consists of making entries of one kind only, or of checking and verifying. The complete understanding of debit and credit, posting and trial balance is the maximum practical need of the younger worker.

Penmanship demands compactness, legibility, neatness and ease in execution.

The chief demand of business in Arithmetic is for the fundamental operations, especially to calculate and verify results mentally.



This brings me to my last topic, the Commercial Teacher.

The Educational Department requires a degree of Bachelor of Arts for a Commercial Specialist's Certificate. This means that the Commercial field equals the other teaching fields. The Commercial teachers in High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are drawing salaries equal to those in any other department. This condition is bound to bring in many of the best men in the profession who are now teaching some other line, or of the best of the new-comers who have not done so hitherto on account of the salary handicap.

Our Commercial teachers must have initiative and resourcefulness. We have to change our plans and aims so frequently in order to meet new conditions if we wish to keep abreast with the times and the progressive business man. We must keep abreast with the business man not only in business but in social and public functions as well.

We must have our pupils feel the reality of the things they are doing. We must be wide-awake, courageous, and consistent. We can do so by believing in our work, by making ourselves thorough in all the various lines of our work, by teaching with such force and spirit that our pupils catch our enthusiasm, and by promoting in every way the evolution of the present system to the approximately perfect Commercial Course.

The future of Commercial education in this Province is largely in our hands. We can only meet these needs by being business men and women. We are on the brink of a great commercial revival or revolution. That means a great demand for workers and a need of a suitable education for them. If I have given you any food for thought in my remarks this morning, I shall be very glad. I thank you for your kind attention, and hope that all our deliberations may be of great benefit to all, and that you will go home feeling that this has been a very profitable meeting.

*METHODS IN SENIOR SHORTHAND.*

WM. BAIRD, HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, TORONTO.

There never was a time in the history of Shorthand when the good stenographer was more in demand than at the present time. The business man, as competition has become more keen, has become more exacting as to what he requires of his stenographer. As a result, the stenographer who passed muster a number of years ago would be utterly incapable of filling the same place to-day. This is, probably, not so true of the rate of writing as it is of accuracy and rate of transcription. It is, therefore, incumbent on us as teachers to meet this demand.

As my subject is "Methods in Senior Shorthand," I have presupposed that the students have covered the theory, and have in mind the acquiring of speed. Let us stop here and ask ourselves what is the purpose of this speed practice. We answer, To write at a high speed forms that represent the spoken words, and from such forms to be able to reproduce, without change or distortion, the exact words spoken. Young speed writers are very prone to think that the transcript is unimportant. I therefore repeat that speed in writing, combined with legibility, is the great desideratum of the shorthand writer, and, of the two, legibility is of primary importance. It is, therefore, essential that we proceed slowly, always keeping before speed-students that accuracy of outline comes first, and speed second.

How, then, shall we attain speed with accuracy? The first requisite is a thorough mastery of the principles. It will be necessary to review and then review again and again. Give no chance to forget the rules. Question continually on outlines and rules that they follow. Never give pupils a chance to think that they are through with the theory when they begin speed work. In this review work teachers will find "Practice Letters for Beginners in Shorthand," by D. J. George, very helpful. And for an exhaustive review you can get no better book than "Pitman's Shorthand Writing Exercises and Examination Tests."

These reviews will be made much more effective by giving a short examination on each section covered. A test of twenty words will be found of sufficient length to embrace almost every principle and rule. Allow twenty marks as a full paper, and deduct two

marks for each wrong outline and one for position or vowel wrong. Fifteen or twenty minutes should be allowed for a test of this length.

Put plenty of time on initial and final hooks, halving-principle, and prefixes and suffixes. Aim to introduce new words each day. Give hard words occasionally—words that could be written in a number of different ways and still be according to rule. Have them look them up in the dictionary to get the correct form. Encourage the dictionary habit, for it is a good one. Pay particular attention to words that have peculiar outlines, like ancestor, disastrously, etc. More ground can be covered, too, by taking a word and its derivatives together, as intend, intended, intending, intention, etc.

Along with this review work, get the students interested in reading printed shorthand, and you can find no better or more suitable book than Dickens' "Christmas Carol." Take about a page a day and have students write it out and read from their own notes. This may be assigned as home-work. This should be varied by occasionally dictating the page in the class work.

Here we make also a connection with the typewriting work. A short letter is written on the board in shorthand. This the students copy into a special letter book. This is preserved and is afterwards typewritten. The student is asked to copy this letter twice into his home-work. It is then dictated three or four times in the class-work next day. All this home-work is collected each day, and the careless students checked up.

Through all this practice insist on accurate outlines. Compare often with printed shorthand, and let nothing short of equalling the text-book forms be satisfactory. Again I say, take time. Do not rush the speed. Dictate these letters, that the students have practised, at sixty words per minute until they can make text-book outlines. When students realize that accurate forms can be made at even a speed of 120 words per minute, your greatest difficulty is overcome. You will keep up the interest by having students read from one another's notes and write in one another's notebook. The good writers are delighted to show what they can do, and the poor profit by the example set them.

If you watch these speed aspirants as they write, you will notice that they run, walk, and stand still. There may be several reasons

for this hesitation. First, inability to accurately hear the words spoken. This may be the fault of the dictator, but is more likely caused through lack of concentration by the writer. This acuteness of hearing can be cultivated and greatly improved by careful training.

Second, lack of familiarity with the spoken word. There is no occupation in which a wide general knowledge is more necessary than in stenography. Teachers can assist students by dictating letters and articles on a broad range of subjects. But even then you can cover only a few of the many lines of business. I advise students when they go to a position in a mercantile house, to secure the catalogue of goods, and go through it, writing the outlines for all unfamiliar words, and noting carefully the spelling. The teacher of English can help, too, by directing the supplementary reading and by encouraging the use of the dictionary; in fact, by teaching English in all its branches—Grammar, Spelling, Punctuation, and Capitalization.

The third cause of hesitation is inability to quickly form the outlines in the mind. This *mental* hesitation is the chief stumbling-block in the path of the speed aspirant. If the hesitation is on grammalogues or contractions, there is only one thing to do. Give the students plenty of exercise in them and keep them at them until they know them. If on other words, I would suggest the writing of proper names, as from a telephone or city directory, or words from a spelling-book. Get the students to think the shorthand outlines as they read the newspaper, as they read the signs in the street car, the advertisements on the billboards, the names on the store windows, etc. To make a success of it, you must live in it by day and dream on it at night. This is the only means of eliminating mental hesitation, and hesitation is the thief of time. It is certainly true of speed writing that "He who hesitates is lost." At a speed of 120 words per minute, two words per second have to be written; so that if a writer hesitates for only one second on an outline, four words will have to be written in the next second to keep in the race—the rate of the fastest writers.

Fourth, lack of manual skill. There is only one way to gain this—by writing the outlines over and over again, until the hand is accustomed to form them instantly. Here you will find that an outline that is difficult to one is easy to another. Have the students



criticize their own work. Have them pick out the poorly-formed outlines and write them over and over until they can be formed quickly and accurately. More errors are attributable to slovenly, badly-formed outlines than to any other cause. How often we hear the student say, "It was intended to be"! There must be no intending. The outlines must be exact.

A good practice to increase manual dexterity is the writing of a memorized passage over and over. Keep the outlines up to a standard, and never let pupils forget that accuracy comes first and speed second. Practise also on a short sentence, writing it over and over for a minute. Go through a whole letter in this way, and then dictate the letter over and over, increasing the speed each time.

A good memory is a wonderful help in stenography, not only in remembering outlines, but in holding in the mind a sentence while writing it. It is good practice to dictate a sentence and have students write it in shorthand after you have finished dictating. Keep increasing the length of the sentence.

In practice on new letters, select letters that have very few new words. Keep students at sixty to seventy words per minute until they acquire a smoothness in writing and a good style of note. Do not try to force their speed. If you do, the result will be poorly written notes, which will end in disaster and future disappointment.

A word as to tools. A good pencil and good paper are essential to the best work in shorthand. A good fountain-pen is preferable to a pencil, but in school work we must of necessity use the lead pencil. I recommend a "Sovereign" or "Venus" HB as suitable in the majority of cases. Students should select a pencil that they can do good work with, and use that kind always. Notebooks that open away from the student are the best for school work. Never allow pupils to write on unruled paper.

Manual dexterity depends to a considerable extent on the manner in which the pencil is held. The position of the body and holding of the pencil should be the same as the position for muscular movement in writing. The pencil should not be grasped tightly, and the hand should be moved directly from the forearm and not from the wrist. The left hand should hold the page down flat, and be ready to turn the page when necessary.

A tremendous number of speed students seem to lack the perseverance necessary to master thoroughly the grammalogues and

contractions; yet there is no part of the subject which tells so markedly upon speed progress, with reliable transcription, as their proper mastery. It is not sufficient to merely know them; we must be able to reproduce the outlines instantaneously, correct in form, shading and position. When we consider that from sixty to eighty per cent. of the words in an ordinary business letter are grammalogues or contractions, we at once realize their importance. "How to Memorize the Grammalogues" is a little book that you will find useful in acquiring perfection. I have followed the method used in this book for years, and find it very satisfactory.

"Exercises on the Grammalogues and Contractions" will be found very useful also. In using this book, I would give only a short paragraph a day, having students look up and write out a line of each outline incorrectly written. This work will be very tedious to students, but there are no short-cuts in phonography. Practice and systematic study are essential to the highest success. overdone, when it at once ceases to be a good servant and becomes

Phrasing is a very useful aid to speed, but is capable of being a bad master. A student writing at top speed will use only the most familiar phrases. I would say, therefore, that the same care must be taken in learning phrases as in learning the grammalogues and contractions. Only those that are known thoroughly will be used by the writer at top speed. We teach students that the essentials of a good phrase are, to be easily written and easily read; but I supplement this by saying that you will save much time and effort by using only such phrases as you find in the text-books or shorthand magazines.

Regular tests should be held once a week if at all possible. This method has been used by us with satisfaction. Dictate two letters of fifty words each at fifty words per minute as a first test. Allow fifteen minutes to transcribe neatly with pen and ink. Then change papers and have class check one another's errors with red ink, while you re-read the letters. Allow a total of twenty marks for the paper, and deduct two marks for each error, however small. This will mean that six errors will reduce the mark to forty per cent. Errors in punctuation and spelling are checked the same as errors in shorthand. Next week make the test the same speed, but increase the number of words, keeping the marking the same. Keep at this speed until practically all the class can make about ten out of

the twenty marks. As the speed is increased, increase the number of words, *i.e.*, for first test at eighty words per minute, use two eighty-word letters. Use the same marking, total of twenty and two off for each error. This method will enable the teacher to know exactly where each student stands. By encouraging and assisting the weaker ones, the class can be kept somewhat on an equal footing. Try to keep up the enthusiasm and do not let the poorer ones get discouraged.

In the third-year work I follow the same plan of weekly tests, but use three letters and count two off for a material error and one for an immaterial. But this year I don't confine the tests to letters, but give legal forms, selections from political speeches, scientific subjects, good authors, etc. The speed of dictation on these articles will depend on the character of the selection. All these transcripts are made on the typewriter.

For home-work and class-work in the third year we use a reading book, "Commercial Correspondence in Shorthand, and the Reporting Practice." This familiarizes students with correct shorthand forms and gives practice in thinking out new outlines. I also use such stories as "Sleepy Hollow" and "Rip Van Winkle," reading about a page a day, and having it read back the next day. For dictation in class, I use "The Student's Practice Book" and several others.

From examination of many transcripts, I would give the following hints as essential to producing good writers and accurate transcribers:

- (1) Thoroughness in study of rules.
- (2) Be absolutely sure of grammalogues and contractions.
- (3) Read extensively printed shorthand.
- (4) Insert initial vowels.
- (5) Vocalize proper names and unfamiliar words.
- (6) Exaggerate large hooks, circles, loops, double lengths and curves.
- (7) Write all words with short outlines, in position.
- (8) Punctuate, especially the period.
- (9) Follow the sense of the matter while writing.
- (10) Use good material.
- (11) Read everything written.

- (12) Learn to spell; but if in doubt use the dictionary.
- (13) Mix a good deal of common sense with the other ingredients.

LIST OF BOOKS AS HELPS.

*On the Theory—*

- (1) Practice Letters for Beginners.
- (2) Introduction in the Dictionary.
- (3) Pitman's Shorthand Writing Exercises and Examination Tests.
- (4) Commentary on Pitman's Shorthand.

*On the Grammalogues and Contractions—*

- (1) How to Practise and Memorize the Grammalogues.
- (2) Exercises on the Grammalogues and Contractions.

*For Reading—*

- (1) Dickens' Christmas Carol.
- (2) Sign of Four.
- (3) Return of Sherlock Holmes.
- (4) The Phonographic Monthly.
- (5) The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.
- (6) Rip Van Winkle.

*Dictation Books—*

For Junior Classes:

For Junior Classes:

- 1) Classified Commercial Correspondence.
- (2) Eldridge's Shorthand Dictation Exercises.
- (3) Pitman's Dictation Instructor.
- (4) Pitman's Progressive Dictator.

For Senior Classes:

- (1) Commercial Correspondence in Shorthand.
- (2) Student's Practice Book.
- (3) Pitman's Five-Minute Speed Tests.
- (4) Pitman's Advanced Speed Practice.



*HOW I TEACH JUNIOR SHORTHAND.*

MR. D. M. CLARK, BELLEVILLE.

In order that there may be no misunderstanding as to the meaning of the subject of this paper, let me say at once that I take it to include the whole of Shorthand theory. With me this means more than the first year's work, when the spaces allowed for it on the time-table are only five half-hours per week. Considering the amount of work to be covered in the subject, such a time is rather inadequate, and it appears more so when we consider the importance of this stage of the study of Shorthand, for it is in this part of the work that the student's success as a stenographer is determined to a very large extent. Some pupils seem to prove fairly competent at speed work up to a certain degree, with only a fair knowledge of the theory, while others proficient in theory seem slower at first. But before long the situation changes; the one who knows his theory imperfectly reaches a limit of speed, and usually a very mediocre one, and stops there, while the other keeps making progress both in taking dictation and, what is far more important, accurately transcribing it. I have invariably found that the accurate speed pupil, and therefore the one who "makes good" in an office, is the one who knows his theory.

Now, what is included in a knowledge of the theory? What acquirements should the pupil possess by the time he has completed theory work? What objectives should we as teachers keep in mind for him?

*First*—He should be able to write correctly with a little thought the outlines for all common words, including grammalogues and contractions, and have a good knowledge of the principles of correct phrasing.

*Second*—He should have acquired the ability to make with accuracy and ease, if not with rapidity, any strokes, hooks, joinings, etc., used in the system. (This may sound superfluous, but I know a pupil who took four months to learn to make the stroke "sh" correctly, and many who found considerable difficulty with the same or other strokes.)

*Third*—He should have learned to write from dictation. I do not mean at any great rate of speed of course, but there is a psychological difference between writing the spoken and the printed word,

and as shorthand has for its object the writing of spoken words, I think the habit should be formed at the beginning and fostered all through the junior work.

It may be impossible to accomplish all this in the first year's work, but whether we accomplish it in the first year or not, it must be done before really successful speed work can be begun. How are we to do it?

*First*—That the pupil may write correct outlines, he must know the rules of the system. They are the frame-work of the whole structure. As a sentence in an exercise in the text-book remarks, "If you transgress the plain rules of the system you cannot properly transcribe your notes, and your transcription is, therefore, sure to be incorrect." His work in this regard is plain; he must learn the rules, learn them and memorize them until they are a part of his mental make-up. No one can do this for him. But the teacher has his part too. Sometimes the rules are not clear to a pupil, and putting them in another way or giving examples of their application may make them plain. They should be taught the same as rules in any other subject are taught. It is for the teacher, too, to provide drills to help fix them permanently in the pupils' minds. In addition to this he must supplement the text-book. I sometimes feel that it is lacking in one respect, viz., giving the "why" for some of the rules and outlines. It seems so arbitrary, as if to say, "There's the rule, take or leave it, but never mind why," and the pupil feels himself at sea and somewhat wronged to be told a certain outline is incorrect when it looks perfectly good to him. Let us anticipate his difficulties, or at least give him an explanation for what we can. If he feels that the hook "n" would be quite appropriate in *minute* suggest to him that some day he is going to be required to write his outlines very quickly, and invite him to write it a couple of hundred times at full speed, using the hook "n," and another couple of hundred using the stroke "n," timing himself in both cases and comparing the accuracy of his strokes, and then decide which is better. He won't likely accept your invitation, but you can tell him that it has been tested in some such way and the best outline chosen. Similarly we can mention the advisability of keeping the outlines for the root parts of derived words similar, the placing of hooks and circles on the opposite sides of a stroke to keep it straight when written rapidly, the cases where a rule has for its object the principle of vowel indication, etc.

Sometimes the rules are indefinite, as where the book states "where the stroke *ing* is inconvenient the dot should be used," but gives no indication, except by examples in the exercises following, of where it is inconvenient, and a beginner cannot easily judge for himself. Yet a careful analysis of these examples by the teacher or pupil will show that certain consonants or class of consonants, either simple or compound, are followed consistently by one, while another list takes the other, and it will prove a more satisfactory way to learn them than by memorizing every word ending in "ing." To take another example: in the case of negative words beginning with "r," the book states that usually downward "r" alone is sufficient to distinguish them, but "it is sometimes necessary to double the 'r.' " If the average pupil is left to himself with this rule he will be no wiser than if it were not stated. He will likely see why downward "r" is usually sufficient, since it implies a preceding vowel, which only occurs in the negative, but "sometimes" will be synonymous with "guess" to him unless he is led to see that before the consonants "t," "d," "ch," etc., which require upward "r," regardless of vowels, it will be necessary to put another "r" to distinguish the negative.

Now I'm afraid all this looks like a criticism of the text-book, and such is not my intention at all. The reasons for most rules are implied somewhere in the book, but not in such a way that pupils readily see them in connection with the rules, and the teacher can, by bringing rules and reasons together, give a rational aspect to the study rather than one of unreasoning application of the memory.

But a rule learned is only useful when applied, and it is absolutely essential that practice in application be given, and so this should be our second and most important way of reaching our objective. It is only by practice, too, that the pupil can learn to make the different strokes, etc., quickly and accurately. The exercises in the text-book give plenty of material for this practice. I use, for the most part, the ones written in shorthand. These are read over in class, the pupils writing them in longhand. As homework, they are asked to turn them back into shorthand from five to ten times without referring to the book, except to correct the work each time after it has been written. At the next lesson I dictate this to them slowly, and they write the shorthand, afterwards handing the work in, or more frequently exchanging it and correcting it from the

text-book. The exercises in ordinary print in the text are written in shorthand and handed in for correction. This gives them a maximum of writing practice, considerable practice in writing from dictation, with only enough examining work by the teacher to keep him posted on their progress.

The amount of an exercise thus given for homework depends on the stage the pupils are in. I find that a class beginning the work will take about half an hour to practice from four to six lines of the shorthand exercises. As the year goes on, they write and think more quickly, and hence can take an increasing quantity.

When the theory has been covered I usually take a review of it before putting all the energies of the class on speed work. The transition to speed is usually easy, as the pupils are already accustomed to dictation, and the work to be done is simply practice and drill to increase their vocabulary and make the thinking more rapid and involuntary.

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## HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION

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### *THE ATTITUDE OF THE STAFF TOWARD SCHOOL SPORTS.*

E. O. SLITER, M.A., KINGSTON.

In this paper I propose to take for granted the value of field sports for physical development, and to confine myself to a consideration of their moral value. I shall try to show that the teacher should encourage school sports, and that he should direct and control them; I shall also venture to make some practical suggestions, drawn from a somewhat extended experience in directing the sports of schoolboys.

Devotion to field sports and games has long been an essentially British characteristic. Even to-day it is true, with but few exceptions, that where English is spoken, outdoor sports flourish; elsewhere they appear not to thrive. In Germany, for instance, one would look in vain for anything resembling in the least our baseball, cricket, football or hockey. An attempt was made not long ago to establish football in the German schools, but the game was suppressed by the authorities, as fostering roughness and brutality!

It is because sport is pre-eminently the amusement of Britain and her offshoots that the idea of "fair play" is essentially a British idea or ideal. To play the game according to the rules, to give the other party a chance, to respect a worthy opponent, to value the contest above the victory, to scorn mean advantages—these are the essentials of fair play.

Some peoples find these things hard to understand. They are beyond the comprehension of a race which regards might as the only right, and law as the refuge of weaklings. A few years ago an eminent German officer was in England as the guest of an English gentleman. He was taken to witness a football game between two school teams. The visiting team, lacking a man to complete their number, the vacant place was filled by a boy from the home school. This amazed the German. "Do you mean to tell me," said he, "that

that boy will do his best against his own school? It is not in human nature!" And he remained unconvinced, although every Briton knows that boy did a little more than his best.

The absence of this spirit of fair play is a sufficient explanation of German methods of warfare, of Germany's treatment of Belgium and Serbia, and in fact of Germany's militaristic spirit, and what we call Prussianism.

Field sports teach command of temper, promote that admirable combination of courage and perseverance which he calls "sand" or "gameness," and develop self-reliance, resourcefulness, initiative, cheerfulness under defeat, and sanity and steadiness in the hour of triumph. If this required proof, one need only point to the part which the young men trained on Canada's fields of sport are playing in Europe to-day.

This is in part what sports may do for boys. I say advisedly "may do," for I am fully aware that there are dangers which must be guarded against by proper direction and control. One of these is the danger of excess. Many a boy has been spoiled because there was no one to show him that sport is only a means to an end, and that that end is defeated if he makes sport the chief reason for his existence.

Another danger is the setting up of false ideals in sport itself—of losing sight of the principle that the contest is more than the victory, that is victory is creditable only if fairly won. Two forces tend in this direction. The one is the practice of betting, which is death to true sport, chiefly because it makes a win the all-important thing; another is professionalism, which is bad, for the same reason. That is why professional coaching is usually detrimental; winning becomes the only thing that counts; then follows the teaching of unfair tactics, and the stream is polluted at its very source.

If what I have said is true, it follows that sport should be encouraged in the school as essential to a boy's education. It also follows that there should be proper direction and control, to avoid the dangers already pointed out. We must never forget that boys will have their sport—if not in connection with the school, then elsewhere, and the teacher in that case will have no control whatever. We should remember, too, that school sports may be made the means of improving, in a most legitimate way, the relations between pupils

and staff, and of giving the teacher an influence he would find it difficult to secure by any other means. It should be borne in mind, also, that there are few better ways of cultivating a healthy and legitimate school spirit, or pride in the school.

It may not be amiss here to draw upon an experience of twenty-five years as a director of school sports, and give some practical and detailed suggestions about the management of these sports by the staff.

Every teacher should show himself interested. Boys are very quick to notice and respond to such interest, and the good feeling thus caused cannot but have its effect upon class work and upon the general tone of the school.

At the same time it is desirable that some one teacher should have charge. His duties are various and important.

He should direct all practices, and teach true sportsmanship. He should reprimand and punish, if necessary, by temporary banishment, displays of bad temper or violence, or the use of bad language, or any unfair tactics. Such reprimand or punishment, if the teacher uses good judgment, will be regarded as a deep disgrace.

He should have charge of finances, for here, as a rule, the boys need experienced guidance.

He should have the final voice in the selection of the teams to represent the school in contests with other teams. Boys are too much ruled by personal likes and dislikes to make always a wise selection. Cliques and factions are likely to cause discord. It may seem a contradiction to say that the boys should choose their own captain, but my experience is that it is best to allow them to do so, without any interference.

Above all, when the team leaves home, the teacher should be in charge; otherwise, the boys may, without in the least intending to do so, bring discredit upon themselves and the school.

A fair standard of scholarship should be insisted on for all who aspire to represent the school in athletics. Such a rule will discourage that most undesirable of students, the boy who is attracted to the school solely by its reputation for athletics. It will also tend to prevent undue absorption in sport, and will act as a spur to the boy who is active enough in the field, but indolent in the classroom.

Let me conclude by expressing my firm conviction that school sports are as necessary to the life of the school as is the work of the classroom; that a staff which will encourage and properly direct the sports of the school will find the boys taking a higher view of their play, getting more out of it, and being the better for it in every way; will find their relations with the boys more human, and their influence increased. It is an experiment worth trying, and one which will not bring disappointment.

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## SUPERVISING AND TRAINING DEPARTMENT

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### *“HOW CAN THE NORMAL SCHOOL STAFFS AND THE PUBLIC AND SEPARATE SCHOOL INSPECTORS CO-OPERATE IN A MORE USEFUL WAY THAN AT PRESENT?”*

C. B. EDWARDS, I.P.S., LONDON.

In spite of all I can do to prevent it, one word aggressively and persistently steps out of its place in the title of this paper, and places itself squarely across the path that one wishes to take in discussing the subject. That word is “CO-OPERATE.”

Co-operation demands intelligence, imagination, foresight and self-denial.

Big Business has long ago discovered a virtue in co-operation and has reduced it to a successful science.

The great corporations have gone to school, not in a little “Red School House,” but in costly laboratories, in which the teachers are high-salaried experts in science, finance, and business practice.

Huge sums are spent in experiments to determine what is best in business.

Governments are following in the path blazed by the corporations, and are establishing scientific schools which are organized and administered by the picked men who form the commissions, to investigate and to report as to the best methods of carrying out some problem of national importance, whether of agriculture, manufacturing, trade or making munitions.

By far the most splendid example of co-operation accomplished by the British race has been witnessed since the memorable 4th of August, 1914, but it was undertaken under the compulsion of fear of national destruction, and cost hundreds of thousands of lives and billions of dollars, that would have been saved had there been the same preparation for the avalanche of war that France had wisely provided. I think it can justly be said that an ounce of timely and intelligent co-operation is worth a ton of watchful waiting and useless wrangling.

For centuries John Bull has been depicted as a burly fellow, obstinate, hot-tempered, and self-opinionated. A gentler civilization has toned down these rugged terms, and now the typical Britisher, whether living in the Homeland or in one of the numerous "overseas" Dominions, is pleased to designate himself as being an individualist, which, being interpreted, means that he has an opinion of his own, and intends, if possible, to carry it out, no matter what the consequences may be.

In opposition to this tendency is a state of affairs in which men agree to submerge some of their individual longings and to work with others for the common good. This may fairly be termed co-operation. All organized human society is based upon this principle.

May it not be fairly said that the true test of a person's education is his ability to work harmoniously with others?

I am convinced that could the cordial co-operation of the Normal School Staffs, the School Inspectors, and the High School Teachers be secured and *utilized*, there would be created a force in education that would result in: (1) clear and definite ideas as to the true aims of elementary and secondary education; (2) an increase in the effectiveness of the teaching force; and (3) the outlining of Courses of Study which would contain a maximum of living-wood and a minimum of dead-wood.

Unity of action between the educational forces just mentioned can only be secured by the determination of each individual concerned to keep an open mind with respect to the recorded experience of men whose work in education entitles their opinions to attention, and the results obtained by the educational experiments conducted by men like Professor Dewey, Edward L. Thorndike, Professor C. H. Judd, and many others, whose lives are being devoted to educational research and investigation.

Opinions founded upon individual preference or prejudice must give way to methods which are the result of the united experience and tested experiments of acknowledged educational leaders.

#### THE AIM OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION.

Reduced to its lowest terms, the most that can be reasonably expected from our Public Schools is that they will enable the pupils attending them to obtain a mastery of the tools of education—one language, and the ability to use it in speech and writing; the funda-

mental operations in elementary mathematics, including the four simple rules, vulgar and decimal fractions, useful tables of weights and measures, simple percentage, and problems that come well within the scope of the pupil's development and economic environment; and the simple elements of science taught in such a way that the knowledge thus gained will be useful when the study is deepened and broadened in the secondary and college education.

In addition to these formal studies, the instinctive desire of the child for motor activity should be gratified by furnishing boys and girls with hand-work suitable to their development and sex. The typical activities embrace weaving, cutting, drawing in pencil and color, sewing, cooking and woodwork.

The modern school must enlarge its interest in the strongest natural inclination of the child which we call the play spirit, which is acknowledged to be the greatest educational factor for children up to the age of ten.

There remains another aspect of education, which is frequently omitted in considering the work of the school, viz., the habits that the child forms by imitating others in his social group, organizing his modes of behavior, using ideas, and reaching conclusions therefrom; in a word, this may be termed "Social Education," which includes right conduct towards one's self and others—in short, moral behavior.

#### REFORM OF CURRICULUM AND TEACHING PRACTICE.

What is needed is a Statute of Mortmain for schoolroom practice that will remove the "dead hand" of tradition and custom that for centuries has chilled the natural spontaneity and initiative of the child and instead has attempted to "mould" him according to the ideas of those who have but little real insight into the natural way young people get their mental growth.

Children at home and on the playground are natural and active, are in fact equipped by nature with "self-starters," but in many classrooms their little motors appear to be stalled and the teacher deems it his duty to "crank" each one separately—a task that wears out and wastes his energy, while the children lose the educative influence of willing effort.

There are, however, classrooms that are as ideal as can be hoped for, but they constitute, I fear, a minority rather than a majority.

## TEACHER TRAINING.

The machinery for training teachers in Ontario is too well known to need explanation, and the writer has on intention of uttering one word of adverse criticism. The staffs of the Faculties of Education, the Normal and Model Schools, are picked men and represent the best teaching ability in the Province. May one offer some propositions as to the aims in teacher-training that might be considered by the Training, Inspectoral, and High School Department?

In judging teachers it might be decided to adopt some general scheme of classification, such as, for example, the following: First, those whose *personality* is inspiring, pleasing and moral. There is no doubt that it is the personality of the teacher that weighs most with the class.

*Skill in teaching*, natural and acquired, might be placed second. Speaking of the natural born teacher, the best example in literature that I can give is the immortal Tom Sawyer.

I cannot quite understand why Educational Authorities have not long ago prescribed that chapter in Tom Sawyer which describes how Tom "permitted" his playmates to whitewash the fence, as part of the curriculum of every Faculty of Education and Normal School.

As the ability in teaching that is acquired, we must remember that "Art is long." Time and patience must be allowed for development.

*Scholarship* is ranked third in the list, but of course this may cause discussion.

It must not be forgotten that education is different from instruction. One is permanent, the other may be ephemeral.

If the school history of those who seek admission to the teaching profession could be studied might it not be a guide to those into whose hands falls the problem of admitting them, in advising them for or against entering upon teaching as their life work?

Again as to the actual training given or attempted to be given in our institutions for teacher-training, may it not be possible that too much is attempted, and there is an effort to make a final job of what must be of necessity a life-long process of learning?



Would it not be better to leave the more academic subjects like the History of Education and even some parts of the Science of Education for subsequent study by the teachers? Summer schools are suggested as a possible means of keeping alive professional interest.

The National Educational Association has declared in its platform its belief "that it is a sound educational principle that whenever a teacher is at work or a child is in the schoolroom—be it in a city, town or country district—both teacher and child should have the benefit of close personal and professional supervision."

The importance of strong Superintending (Inspectoral) and Training Departments in a system of education is generally recognized.

The Department of Superintendence is conceded to be the most influential factor in the N. E. A. of the United States. Its meetings are held during the last week in February each year, and are attended by all the prominent educators in the United States and a considerable number of Canadian teachers.

Those who have had the good fortune to attend this convention must be impressed by the enthusiasm of the meetings, the eminence of those who address the different sections, and the cordial co-operation of educators representing every department of education. Especially striking to an Ontario teacher is the keen interest in Elementary Education.

It is not uncommon to hear Professor C. H. Judd, W. C. Bagley, Professor G. D. Strayer, and other eminent men deliver carefully prepared addresses on elementary schools.

The leaders of educational affairs from every part of the United States can, almost without exception, be found in attendance at the annual meetings of the Department of Superintendence.

From this department has emanated, I think, some famous reports, like the Committee of Ten, Committee of Fifteen, and the Committee of Twelve, which have had a wide and deep influence on educational administration in every State of the Union.

The National Bureau of Education is always well represented by the Commissioner and some of his assistants, and wields a great influence by the sheer ability of its representatives, not by any red tape, backed up by legal authority.

This is a striking example of what can be done by a Department of Education, which appeals to the intelligence of a great democracy, for the support of all branches of the Public Education.

May we not hope for (1) a Canadian Educational Association; (2) a Canadian Commissioner of Education; and (3) a Supervising and Training Department that will consist of those whose ability and achievements entitle them to rank as worthy leaders in the noble work of directing the training and education of Canada's future citizens?

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## *DOES THE ONTARIO PUBLIC SCHOOL MEET THE PUBLIC NEEDS?*

By E. T. WHITE, B.A., B.PAED.

In entering upon the discussion of this topic there are several questions one might properly ask. Who is to decide what the public needs are? How far should the school meet the needs of the public as they exist to-day, and how far should it lead the way in shaping newer and better conditions? It is pretty evident that there will always be a need for readjustment. What we should be most concerned about is whether the school is moving in the right direction and adjusting itself with reasonable speed to the new requirements. It is worthy of note that the public seem disposed to place greater responsibility on the schools than formerly. Teachers should welcome this changed attitude and make an honest attempt to meet successfully the new demands. Honest criticism is usually a helpful thing, and criticism from the outside is often better than from the inside.

What is to be done with this far-reaching modern movement to adapt education to the immediate needs of all the people? It is productive of good, and with certain qualifications represents a real gain. An immediately practical education is a necessity for those whose formal education must be comparatively brief, that is for a large percent of the population. It is not desirable that the public schools should be overweighted with vocational studies, when we remember that a good general education is essential for all trades. Then again it is well to keep in mind that while good producers are a valuable national asset, intelligent consumers and citizens are equally desirable.

The boys and girls whom the public schools send out should be equipped for self-support and intelligent growth. They must be ready to cope with the industrial conditions in the midst of which they find themselves, and ready and able to serve the common good.

This call for readjustment on the part of the schools is not limited to our own country by any means. In a recent article on "The Future of English Education," viewed in the light of the present war, Michael E. Sadler undertakes to point out the gravest defects in English education. Some of these are peculiar to English conditions, but there are others which have a bearing on our own

situation. Mr. Sadler claims that the English schools fail to stimulate the intellectual interests of boys and girls of average ability, with resulting wastefulness in the husbanding of the mental powers of the nation. He also finds that parental opinion is not instructed in matters of education, as shown in indifference to the quality of teaching and in a capricious and casual choice of schools. How far do these defects apply to Ontario? Our "school mortality" still constitutes a serious problem, and it is highly probable that a certain percent of the pupils who leave school at an early age do so because the schools have failed to supply the necessary mental stimulation. We must also plead guilty of having many parents who are not really vitally interested in education, and naturally are not well informed as to the real purpose of the school.

In the United States increasing interest is being manifested in educational problems. Several attempts have been made to reorganize the work of the public schools in order to meet more adequately present day needs. These efforts have been largely along the line of a reorganized curriculum with a view to vitalize school studies.

In Ontario we might profitably recall the summing up of the situation by Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, in his report on Industrial Education, in 1911. Dr. Seath gives two fundamental needs that the schools, if successful, must meet: (a) A good general education as a basis of all vocations; and (b) a closer connection between the school and the activities of life. We shall do well to keep clearly before us the value of a good general education as a foundation on which to build. Dr. Seath in the same report names four obstacles to the modernizing of schools in Ontario.

1. Uniform Departmental Examinations.
2. Academic tradition.
3. Irregular attendance.
4. Early exodus of pupils destined for the industries.

To what extent do these obstacles still persist? There is still the desire for an occupation that allows "clean hands and good clothes," and the inducements to follow industrial pursuits, though much improved, are not equal to those that lead to the professions. In the matter of irregular attendance, the reports from inspectors



are very encouraging, and it would appear that the situation in this respect is much improved. As stated above, in "school mortality" there is still a problem seeking solution.

The subjects of study that have the most direct bearing on the practical activities of life are manual training, household science and agriculture. It will be of interest to compare the present position of these subjects with that of 1911.

#### MANUAL TRAINING.

1911—

12 cities giving instruction to 43,211 pupils.

11 towns giving instruction to 1,680 pupils.

1915—

17 cities giving instruction to 63,506 pupils.

26 towns giving instruction to 10,527 pupils.

#### HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE.

1911—

9 cities giving instruction to 11,990 pupils.

6 towns giving instruction to 1,613 pupils.

1915—

18 cities giving instruction to 31,509 pupils.

13 towns giving instruction to 2,117 pupils.

#### AGRICULTURE.

1911—In Normal Schools, 4,629 pupils.

1915—In Normal Schools, 16,030 pupils.

Special equipment for manual training and household science is confined almost entirely to cities and towns.

Taking this short period, 1911-1915, we have good reason to be encouraged by the increased attention to the subjects of manual training, household science and agriculture. However, I note that there are still one hundred towns that are not giving any special attention to these practical subjects, and so far as I can learn from available reports, no very marked steps have been taken to give the work in manual training a more practical bearing in accordance with the Act of 1913.

Progress in agriculture has in some respects been a little discouraging. The work in the schools has failed to grip the attention of the farmers. Still I believe a good deal of valuable missionary

work has been done which has laid a good foundation for future progress. The number of teachers certificated in agriculture has been materially increased. Very valuable special courses for inspectors have been given, and much information has been circulated by means of special charts, circulars and bulletins. The Home Gardens and the School Fairs are doing much to create a real interest in the better type of agriculture. In schools where the work has been well handled it has done much to vitalize many of the ordinary school subjects, such as arithmetic and composition. Unfortunately, there are many difficulties to be overcome. Parents and teachers lack interest in the subject. Added to this is the frequent change in teachers. The lack of a definitely arranged course of study in agriculture, properly articulated with the other school studies, has made it difficult for the inexperienced teacher to handle the subject to the best advantage.

The modern school is becoming more and more expensive, and there is great need for care in looking after the problem of school finance. There is need for intelligent and sympathetic support on the part of the public. Unfortunately, in many quarters there is manifested too little faith in public officials and too great unwillingness to participate in public service. The teaching of civics must be made more vital in order to give the pupils of our public schools a greater appreciation of the public duties which belong to a citizen and a greater readiness to put aside selfish private interests that they may the better serve the public weal.

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## INSPECTORS' SECTION

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### *PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.*

J. W. MARSHALL, B.A., WELLAND.

*Gentlemen,*—Heartily do I thank you for the honor you have conferred upon me by electing me successively to the offices of Secretary and President of this the most representative of the whole Province of any Section of the O.E.A. Apart from the Legislature, it is doubtful whether any organization of its size represents as much of Ontario as this Section. I wish also to acknowledge the co-operation of so large a number of our members in our undertakings; particularly was this the case in the fact that ninety-two Inspectors contributed equal amounts toward the \$920 for the purchase of a machine gun for use overseas.

It is a matter of great satisfaction to Inspectors as well as to others who expect to spend their lives in the interests of education, that the Provincial Legislature has made the Teachers' and Inspectors' Superannuation Bill law.

In our daily work we are often led to ask what can best be done for pupils who, under present conditions, fall short of completing the public School course. Can we have a real public school leaving standard without attaining to which no pupil's attendance at school may cease at 14 or 15 or even 16 without special permission of the Principal or the Inspector?

In Ohio the law requires children to remain at school until they are 16 unless they must go to work. Even then permission is given only in case a definite position is arranged for, and if the child wishes later to change to another position, this permission must be renewed. Also, if he stops working, the school keeps in touch with him and can see that he goes back to school.

In Cincinnati the factory shops of the city become the school shops for the pupils, and thereby partly restore the old apprentice-

ship system. This affords facility for change, if a pupil makes a wrong choice of an occupation at first.

It has been said that the first business of the public school is to teach the child to live in the world in which he finds himself, to understand his share in it, and to get a good start in adjusting himself to it.

Ideals of culture and education were in the early schools, and still are, to some extent, based upon the interests and demands of a leisure class. Present day education should aim to give an equal chance to everyone, but those who leave school from Forms II. or III. do not appear to be getting this.

Schools must have a social relation by being made a part of active life and not by being isolated.

A great deal is written about the public school system of Gary, Indiana, with special reference to the novel features of school administration that are being worked out there, or else with emphasis on the opportunities for industrial training. But the best thing there is the social and community idea.

In Gary the number of adults using the school buildings is greater than the number of children, though, of course, the number of hours they attend school is much shorter. Everything possible is done in co-operation with church and home. There is no compulsion, however, to keep children at school after the legal age. This is overcome by making the schools obviously useful for each individual, so that he wants to stay because he is enabled to see the immediate value of his work. The school press prints from time to time bulletins explaining to the pupils and their parents the advantages the schools afford. Some of these show in figures the relative positions and salaries of high school graduates as compared with those who leave school at 14, as they appear two or three or ten years after leaving.

Pupils are classified as "rapid," "average" or "slow" workers. Rapid workers finish the 12 years of school at about 16, average pupils at 18, and slow workers at 20, though the slow worker may be more thorough than the rapid. Fifty-seven per cent. of all the school children in Gary who are 13 years of age are in the seventh grade or above it.

The pupils of the lower grades are allowed to see as much as possible of the work being done by the higher grades, even to the



extent of being helpers for the high school pupils at laboratory work, or of being an audience for them. There is also an auditorium period for the use of the general community, where any person who is doing anything interesting may come in and tell the children about it. Yet conditions in Gary are not ideal. The idea is, however, that the boy who intends to be a carpenter or a painter needs to stay in school just as many years as the boy who is going to college.

An important point in education is that pupils should form the habit of connecting the information they acquire with the activities of life; yet not necessarily must all this be utilitarian, or that all problems be in terms of money, but that we steer between the extremes of bookishness on the one hand and a narrow, so-called practical education on the other.

Agriculture in rural schools has in part as its aim to overcome the disadvantages of isolation that have oppressed the rural teacher, and to make use of the natural environment of the child, and may yet become a means of helping to solve the problem of the ungraduating pupil.

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*THE TRAINING OF THE TEACHER AS A PHASE OF THE  
INSPECTOR'S WORK.*

F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., D.PAED.

On the morning that I began to write this paper, I examined the column of "Teachers Wanted" in a daily paper. The first advertisement asked for an "experienced teacher," and all that followed either demanded, or required applicants to state, experience.

When I was in Europe I asked the Director of a trade school which appeared to furnish its students with a most complete equipment in practical work, if the school fitted its graduates to take at once satisfactory positions as journeymen in any of the trades covered by the courses of study offered. His answer was, No. He said that there were certain features of trade training which a man acquires in working in commercial shops under productive conditions that no trade school, however well organized and equipped, can supply.

A short time ago I was discussing with the Dean of one of the leading Technical Colleges of the United States the character of the engineering courses given in the schools of America. In the course of the conversation, he referred to the lack of ability on the part of the graduates of Technical Colleges to adjust themselves at once to the demands of work in practical fields, and pointed out that a man must receive a second course of training outside of college before he can be given charge of any important engineering contract.

These three cases are taken from different fields, but they have a distinctive feature in common, they illustrate the general law that experience acquired under actual working conditions is necessary to the attainment of proficiency in any field demanding knowledge and skill.

In the training of teachers, the necessity for combining practical experience with theoretical instruction has been recognized from the beginning. The Model or Practice School is an essential part of the Normal School system, but there has always been a feeling that there was something which practice in the practice school did not or could not give. When one asks for a frank criticism

of the Normal School system, he is almost certain to receive in answer some statement regarding the weakness of the school in giving opportunities for instruction in practical teaching. Now, doubtless, such weaknesses exist, but at the same time we must frankly recognize that, while practice schools and practice school systems are imperfect and may be improved, no system can be devised by which a teacher can acquire real experience in the government and control of schools through schools specially organized for this purpose. These schools are valuable because they assist the teacher to apply the general principles of teaching and to acquire better habits of instruction and class management, but they cannot be made to take the place of the school whose sole purpose is the training of children. The teacher's real experience must be acquired under actual working conditions in our Public and Separate Schools. The problem is to control and to improve this experience under such conditions.

At the outset I desire to emphasize the fact that guidance and control are necessary; it is not a certainty that experience necessarily leads to proficiency.

A Board of School Trustees advertises for experience as if it were something of real value in itself, irrespective of its nature or the conditions under which it has been acquired. Does the Board that engages a teacher of forty years' experience get a jewel or a gold brick? Possibly, a jewel; doubtless, now and then a gold brick; in most cases, neither.

The mistake is that we think of experience and speak of it as if it were a commodity, something whose value is measured by its quantity, something that can be acquired, possessed, and even disposed of or lost. But experience is inseparable from life, or, to put it more truly, it is the form which living assumes. The question, therefore, is not one of experience or no experience, not a question of much or little, but one of character and value, and character and value are not to be measured in units of time. Experience, when it is a matter of progressive and continuous improvement along any significant line, becomes a most valuable acquisition, but when it consists in the fixing permanently of useless or unnecessary ideas or habits, it may be the most undesirable of qualities.

Experience, then, to be valuable must be controlled. This was fully recognized in the relationship of the apprentice to the master

in the apprenticeship systems of trade training. The same principle was applied in the earlier days in training the youth for professions. They obtained their training in law, theology, or in medicine mainly through association with those learned in these professions. The pupil-teacher system of the training of teachers was in vogue in England in our day. The apprenticeship system in the trades is disappearing, and so far nothing has been established to take its place; hence, the chaos which exists in trade training. The professional schools have taken the place of apprenticeship in the professions.

The weakness of the apprenticeship system is apparent. It necessarily deals with the details of practical experience rather than with the discussion of general principles. On the other hand, the weakness of the theoretical schools is now also becoming apparent. General principles to be of value must find their application in practical experience, which should be acquired under judicious and competent supervision. Efforts are being made in certain professions to carry out this scheme by requiring candidates for degrees and diplomas to take more practical courses. For example, in medicine, candidates who have finished their theoretical courses are required to spend a minimum amount of time in a hospital or in practice under the direction of an experienced practitioner. The necessity for controlled practical experience in engineering is being met in some colleges by the development of co-operative systems in accordance with which a student is engaged alternately in study and experimentation in the college and in practical work outside.

The teacher's position is somewhat different from that of a member of either of the professions just cited. In some respects he is more favorably situated. The teacher's work throughout the whole course is supervised by officers whose special duty it is to help him increase its efficiency. This belongs to our sphere as inspectors. Section 4 (a) of the Regulations governing inspection reads: "In his inspection the Inspector shall bear in mind the provisions of the curriculum and the special needs of the school; he shall assist the teacher in selecting and planning his work; and, by judicious criticism and advice, and, especially, by teaching illustrative lessons, he shall endeavor to improve the methods of instruction."

How shall the teacher's experience under actual working con-



ditions be directed into channels that will increase his power and add to his efficiency?

Primarily, this is the teacher's own problem because the direction of personal experience is necessarily self-direction. But while absolute external control is impossible and continuous interference usually mischievous, the conditions of self-direction may be controlled. The teacher's ideals and practice, like those of other people, are subject to influences, good or bad. Here the inspector finds his opportunity, and at the same time his problem.

I shall discuss these questions separately: First, the opportunities; second, the means.

Now, what lines of opportunity for teacher training are open to the inspector?

Permit me to suggest the following:—

1. In the forming of the teacher's ideals.
2. In increasing the teacher's determination of purpose.
3. In improving the teacher's academic attainments.
4. In improving the teacher's knowledge of principles and methods of instruction.
5. In the teacher's acquisition of skill.

I need not lecture a group of inspectors on the importance of ideals. To say that the teacher should act from ideals is simply another way of saying that his experience should be self-determined, because the ideal is the point of departure and the directing force in accomplishing any work carried on by an intelligent agent. The worker who is following slavishly the minute directions of another is a machine; and I take it that we shall agree that a teacher should be an intelligent agent, not a machine. A rich and fruitful experience is developed only through freedom and self-determination.

The student teacher has conceived, through reflection on his reading and from contact with the Normal School masters more or less clear and inspiring ideals of the teacher's work and of the ways in which it is to be carried out. He leaves a Normal School in most cases with a determination to realize these ideals in his practice. What are the results? Contact with school conditions has a strong tendency to shatter such ideals. This is natural, because, in most cases, they are conceived to meet imaginary, not real, situations.

The teacher must readjust his conceptions to cope with the actual conditions. The first step is to make a careful study of the

conditions. Many a teacher fails through lack of interpreting the demands of the situation in which he is placed. It does not necessarily follow that because certain conditions exist that the teacher is aware of them or interprets them rightly. Interpretation in this, as in every other field, requires a background of experience. At this stage the inspector can be most helpful in assisting the teacher to understand more fully the real demands of the position and to readjust his conceptions to meet these demands.

What the teacher needs is not positive direction but encouragement and effective help. We must remember that this is a most critical stage in his experience. The tendency is for the beginner, when his carefully thought out plans fail, to become discouraged and to lose faith in ideals. If ideals cannot be realized, why conceive ideals? Why strive for higher ends when effort is sure to be followed by failure? Let matters drift, put in time, keep school. Every inspector recognizes this phase in the experience of the teacher. Most teachers pass through it. The danger is that the attitude becomes permanent and that the teacher swells the ranks of the routine workers.

In speaking of ideals, you will understand that I have reference not simply to those higher visions which should attract from afar the teacher to more noble endeavor, but more particularly to the use of the mind in planning from step to step intelligent responses to the ordinary every-day situations of the schoolroom. To put it more plainly, I am speaking of the practice, all too uncommon, of using the mind as an effective instrument in every-day work. When we have assisted the teacher to become in reality a worker from intelligent plans rather than a slave of mechanized routine, we have become a most active force in teacher training.

My second suggestion has reference to determination of purpose. I am in the habit of telling Normal School students that I am more interested in their determination to carry out plans than I am in their knowledge of methods or their requirements in skill. I believe I am right. Ideals and plans are good in their way, but they are of no value to the school until realized. The realization of ideals means willingness, determination, wilfulness. We all assent to the attribute of willingness. Everyone appreciates the willing worker, especially at this stage, when the idler, the procrastinator and the excuse-maker is everywhere in evidence. The per-

son who is actually willing to adopt suggestions and to carry out directions, and is faithful in his efforts, is thoroughly appreciated. Possibly we are not so enthusiastic in commending determination or wilfulness. Are not the determined and wilful teachers the thorns in our flesh? Yet when we think of it we must recognize that the real difference between strength and weakness of character is at root a difference in determination of will. Difficulties and obstacles are overcome and important ends reached only through the development of determination and practical force to realize in achievement what has been conceived in ideal. Determination and wilfulness are to be condemned only when the ends to be reached are lacking in worth. The wilful teacher is a thorn in my flesh only when the ideals are wrong—his or mine. His judgment may be right, mine wrong; or mine may be right and his wrong. To mend matters the ideals must be reconstructed in the light of a more intelligent view of the situation. The practical force for realization should be conserved. We cannot make a teacher strong by breaking him into our ways of acting. We strengthen him by helping him into saner ways of thinking.

My third suggestion refers to the academic attainments of teachers. When I was Principal of a Collegiate Institute, the members of my staff were constantly complaining of the lack of preparation in the Entrance candidates coming up from the Public and Separate Schools. Normal School masters assure me that the attainments of those who pass the Normal Entrance examination are, to say the least, very unsatisfactory. Inspectors are in the habit of telling me of the woeful ignorance of Normal School graduates. Now and then a man of the world confides to me his belief that school-men in general—teachers and inspectors—are a hopelessly narrow and pedantic group, with little knowledge of the world and without real intellectual interests.

If these views are accepted, it would appear that there is a weakness all along the line; but such statements are always more or less overdrawn; yet do they not express a basic truth? At every stage in the learner's progress a wide fringe of vagueness, uncertainty and incompleteness surrounds the circle of real knowledge. As the area of the known is widened, the fringe is extended.

It is with this fringe that the teacher is specially concerned, and it is natural that its vagueness, its crudeness, and its contradic-

tions will at times depress him, but it is unwise to complain of its existence. Normally, this fringe represents the growing area of the mind. It is the area of incompleteness; yet it is, at the same time, the area of interest and of reconstruction. It is a characteristic of every healthy growing intellect. It has its place in the mind of the philosopher as well as in that of the school boy. The aim of the learner should be to preserve it and to utilize it.

One of the problems is to keep the teacher's intellect in a healthy, growing condition. The vitality of his experience will depend upon it. While he is at school he is subject to the demands of the course of study and to the stimulus of the teacher. When he leaves school, these demands and stimuli are removed, and there is a danger that growth, which has been more or less fictitious, will cease. Here the inspector finds his opportunity.

We need never expect that teachers will come to the work with perfect knowledge. The best that we can hope for is that the conditions of growth have been preserved. Our object as inspectors is to see that these conditions are maintained, and that intellectual growth continues to take place. I need not remind you that the necessity for growth applies to all teachers, not to beginners alone. With the beginner, the claims of his new position frequently furnish a sufficient impetus towards intellectual endeavor, but when the strangeness of his situation disappears and he begins to feel himself perfectly at home in his school, intellectual demands cease and the temptation to follow a life of routine grows strong. The need for incentives is therefore often greater in the case of the experienced teacher than with the beginner.

My fourth suggestion has reference to the teacher's methods of instruction. As inspectors you are fully seized of the fact that the teachers who leave the Normal School are not perfect masters of method. Their professional equipment, like their academic, is imperfect. Our purpose in the Normal School has been to give the student teacher instruction along fairly detailed and definite lines in the more important Public School subjects, but at the same time to give him such a grasp of the general principles of teaching as will help him to understand the reasons for the detailed procedure. Considering the student's immaturity and the shortness of the time at his disposal, this scheme appears to give the best preparation for beginning work. The student's knowledge of routine and detail



helps him to take up work at once, and his grasp of principles gives him a basis for modifying and adjusting his methods of instruction to suit the individuality of his pupils and his own growing interests and powers.

This leaves, as you will see, a wide range for experimentation and improvement on the part of the teacher under actual working conditions. At this juncture, the young teacher will need guidance and assistance. Here again the inspector finds an opportunity.

As a rule, you have, I believe, taken advantage of this opportunity. In fact, in my opinion, some of the best work that you have done for your schools is in this field. I desire here to express my appreciation of its importance, and at the same time to emphasize the necessity for its continuance. The Department of Education is endeavoring to assist you in this matter. It was mainly for this purpose that the series of manuals of method were published. I am pleased to learn from letters recently received by the Department that many of you appreciate the place and value of these books. I may say that their purpose was two-fold: First, to be used as text-books in the Normal Schools, and thus to reduce the time to be taken up in the teaching of principles and methods, and to increase that to be given to practice in their application to organization and lesson procedure. Second: to be used as schoolroom manuals which teachers will consult in preparing their lessons from day to day. In fact, one of the purposes of the use of these books in the Normal Schools is so to familiarize the student teachers with them that they will appreciate their value and make daily use of them when they are appointed to schools.

One of the very best ways in which, in my judgment, you can help teachers to improve their methods is to expect them to make constant use of these works and other supplementary books and periodicals covering the same field. You will understand that I am not pleading for a slavish use of books, nor am I asking that your efforts, which have been so well directed through personal instruction and illustrative teaching, should be discontinued. The books are intended to be an aid to personal work, not a substitute for it.

My last suggestion is that you give attention to the training of the teacher in skill.

It is unnecessary to point out the distinction between a knowledge of methods and skill in presentation. Most students can

acquire a theoretical knowledge of methods, but many fail in ever learning to transform theory into practice.

For those who lack almost absolutely the aptitude to teach, little or nothing can be done. The function of the Normal Schools is to prevent, as far as possible, such persons from getting into the schools. Many are thus shut out, but some slip by. It is difficult for the Normal School master to foresee all the possibilities for success in nervous and awkward youths. He hesitates to decide against a student when he knows that there is a possibility of his making a mistake and of thus ruining a life career. Theoretically, the inspector is expected to shut out those who, after two years of practice under ordinary school conditions, still signally fail to make good. So far this barrier has not proved a serious obstacle in the way of the weak entering the profession. Our privilege should, I believe, be more frequently exercised. Some day, possibly, I may set you a good example.

I have, of course, been referring to extreme cases.

Most beginners are seriously lacking in skill. This is to be expected, because skill depends on habits of mental and physical control which, in the case of most, come only with years of practice.

This control means the suppression of diffuse and useless tendencies and habits in the direction of all efforts towards the attainment of the results to be sought in instruction. The ideal is to realize the purpose of each lesson with a minimum of expenditure of time and energy. Now, as inspectors, we know how seldom this end is attained, even by our most skilful teachers. The tendency to introduce extraneous matter, to ask unsuitable and unnecessary questions, to echo pupils' answers, to use awkward and distracting gestures—these and a host of other disturbing tendencies and habits detract from the teacher's effectiveness and waste the pupils' time.

The distressing factor in the situation is that many of these tendencies are found almost as firmly rooted habits in all student teachers. They are certainly contagious; it would almost appear that they are hereditary.

Now, what is to be done about it?

A great deal of the time of the critic teachers in the Normal Model Schools is taken up in the attempt to replace these habits by more useful responses. But such habits have a tendency to reappear. You are certain to find them growing even more firmly

rooted in your schools. It is clear that here again you will find an opportunity for effective teacher training. To uproot such habits requires very direct and persistent treatment. One of the chief difficulties arises from the fact that in most cases the habits are unknown to those who are subject to them. I have heard a training teacher lecture his students against practices which he, in the very act of correction, was himself committing. When, later, I called his attention to the contrast between his theory and his practice, he told me that he was not aware that he had fallen into the error to which he took exception.

The first step in assisting a teacher in such a position is to awaken him to consciousness. In some cases this is all that is required; in fact, it is about all you can do. The teacher himself must do the rest.

This idea suggests that I have spent most of my time in discussing my first question, the opportunities and the fields for teacher training open to the inspector. Now let me turn to the second, the means.

In this connection let me re-state the position which I took at the outset. The question of the improvement of a teacher is primarily his own problem, and he is the only one who can accomplish permanent results. For him self-improvement is the only form of real improvement. This position is not always fully recognized. As a principal, I have had weak teachers on my staff, who would transfer to me the task of their reconstruction, and who would blame me for their incompetence when it appeared to them that I had failed at my job.

The fundamental principle to be kept in mind in discussing ways and means to improve the teacher is that he himself must conceive the plans and take the active part in carrying them into execution. It is not a question of his consent or even co-operation, but one of ideals, of determination, and of execution. It is for this reason that in describing the fields open to the inspector for teacher training, I placed the teacher's ideals and determination of purpose first. If we succeed here, we have little more to do.

I have taken time and pains to emphasize the freedom of the teacher as a self-determining agent because I fear that at times in our efforts to mould the teacher in accordance with our ideas, we overlook this fundamental consideration. Do not the directions

usually given, and even the methods adopted for teacher training, seem to imply that we have the power to make over the teacher in conformity to a definite plan? The word training itself suggests it.

Let me repeat again, the teacher must reconstruct herself.

Where, then, does the inspector find a place in the process?

The teacher's plans and purposes, like those of the rest of us, are conceived and realized under the limitations of the narrow environment in which he lives, and most of these plans and purposes have direct reference to elements in that environment. Now the inspector occupies an outstanding place in the teacher's world, especially in the young teacher's world. In fact, in my opinion, the inspector is, on the whole, the most influential factor in the teacher's environment. I never fully appreciated the extent of his influence until, as Chief Inspector, I visited schools in all sections of the Province. I found that the work done in the schools by the teachers reflected quite generally the ideals of the inspector.

Take, for example, the question of the subject matter of instruction. In one county a certain phase of grammar was being emphasized in every fourth class; in another, special attention was being given to accuracy and rapidity in the simple rules of arithmetic; in a third, the children in all the classes were being trained in supplementary reading; in a fourth county, nature study was stressed; and so on.

The reason for this is apparent. Most of the teacher's plans of work take into account the desires, the expectation, and even the hobbies of the inspector.

The inspector makes himself felt as a determining factor in the teacher's environment in two ways. First, through personal dealing; second, through the conditions he sets up in his inspectorate, the atmosphere, so to speak, which he creates.

I remember, many years ago, listening to an address in this Section discussing the first of these means by which the inspector makes his influence felt. The speaker was describing his method of making teachers acquainted with his opinions of their work. He said that his habit was at each inspection of a school to make full notes of his criticisms of the teacher's methods, with suggestions for improvement, and to leave a copy in the Register. The teacher was instructed to read it after his departure.

This method of personal dealing has something to recommend



it. The teacher would certainly read with attention the statements left by the inspector, and possibly would reflect upon them. The inspector, on his part, was not required to overcome the diffidence which, evidently, he felt in speaking personally to the teacher. He also escaped, possibly, the teacher's reaction on his strictures. But should there be any restraint in discussing with the teacher the means of his improvement? And might not the teacher's reaction be a most valuable contribution towards the realization of the end sought?

Personally, I believe that the inspector's methods of dealing with the teacher should be most frank and direct, based on mutual understanding, a recognition of the fact that the teacher's methods are not perfect, that the inspector is not looking for perfection because perfection is impossible, that the end to be sought is the progressive improvement in the teacher's efficiency throughout his whole course, and that both inspector and teacher have a mutual interest in the realization of this end. Such an understanding should establish a basis of co-operation and break down restraint.

The inspector's part in the plan is to discuss frankly with the teacher the strength and weakness of the teacher's work, to commend improvement, and to suggest further lines of advance.

The teacher, on his part, when this understanding is established, should not regard the inspector's criticisms as complaints, but should feel free to state his point of view, to discuss his problems and difficulties, and to unfold his plans for the inspector's suggestions.

But the inspector makes himself felt also through the character of the environment which he creates in his inspectorate. Now, let me say that this is not a question of environment or no environment, but one of extent and character; because every inspector, the most colorless as well as the most enlightened and energetic, creates an environment.

The teacher lives in this environment, and his growth in experience along all the lines I have noted is conditioned by the assistance and the stimulation which it offers.

Now, how shall this assistance and stimulation be given? The answer to this question would furnish the subject for a full address. In general terms, I may say that the means for creating a stimulating and vitalizing atmosphere are varied: personal interest and

counsel, teachers' institutes, local and county reading circles, social and literary societies, public lectures by inspiring speakers, the direction into extra-mural University courses, etc. These and other activities in which the inspector may interest himself may be made important aids, but, back of all, must be the intellectual and moral force of the inspector's personality.

A friend and I attended a lecture recently. The speaker was a noted educator. His subject was the "Qualifications and the Work of the Teacher." After the lecture, I asked my friend what he thought of it. "It was good," he said, "but not altogether satisfying. The lecturers' ideal teacher was too coldly intellectual, no inspiration."

We agree with my friend that inspiration is a most necessary quality in the teacher. But what shall we say of the inspector? Should he not be a centre of inspirational energy?

On speaking of the fields for teacher training, I emphasized the fundamental necessity for strengthening the teacher in self-determining power. The opportunity can be met only by inspiration. The spiritual is influenced only by the spiritual.

When a teacher tells you, after your inspection of his school, that your visit has been an inspiration to him, is he not paying you the highest compliment? What does he mean? If his statement is not mere verbal flattery, he is telling you that your visit has strengthened in him the determination to conceive and to realize ever higher and higher ideals. You have been of the greatest service to him, because you have quickened in him that divine spirit of restlessness that is the natural spur to renewed and successful endeavor. You have been an inspiration.

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*THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF MATHEMATICS.*

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The subject of this paper is so vast that volumes could be written upon it; you will, therefore, readily understand and pardon me if I hasten over some very important points of it and limit myself to those that are essential to a great general view of the rise and progress of Mathematics in the world.

I shall begin by asking you to follow me back to the most primitive ages, and consider those nations whose history lifts the veil that hides the dead past from the living present, taking up particularly such of them as have contributed to the origin and development of this science.

Authentic profane history of the peoples that inhabited the fertile valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates begins with the foundation, in Chaldea and Babylonia, of one kingdom, whose subjects had till then been divided into distinct nations. This region, it is generally believed, was the cradle of the human race. For that reason let us, in this summary of the history of Mathematics, begin with the people who dwelt there.

*THE BABYLONIANS.*

The Babylonians were a mathematical race; and, in our study of their efforts in this line of intellectual activity, we shall first speak of their system of notation. It was the cuneiform, or wedge-shaped, symbol, in which a vertical wedge stood for 1, and an arrow-head-shaped figure placed horizontally with the point towards the left, stood for 10. Two of the symbols for 10 with three wedges to their right meant 23, which justifies the conclusion that they made use of the principle of place-value. Everyone will recognize in this the rise of the decimal system.

A Babylonian tablet, written probably many centuries before Christ, has been found, on which the squares of the numbers from 1 to 60 appear. Those of the first seven numbers are given thus: 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49; then 1.4, 1.21, 1.40, 2.1, are given as the squares of 8, 9, 10 and 11 respectively, the table continuing up to 60. This seems to be the application of a sexagesimal system; thus,

in 1.40, the 1 would equal 60, which added to 40 would make up 100, the square of 10, etc. This system would seem to have been introduced in order to avoid the too great number of arrow-heads and wedges required to write numbers beyond 50. If this solution be not correct, then this tablet is wholly unintelligible.

The sexagesimal system was also used in fractions,  $1/2$  and  $1/3$  being represented by 30 and 20 respectively, the reader having to supply the denominator 60. This system was, later on, introduced into Greece by Hypsicles and Ptolemaeus, and was subsequently used in astronomical calculations till the 16th century, when it finally yielded to our decimal fractions, just evolved by Stevin, in 1585, who wrote in French a special treatise, called "*La Disme par laquelle nous pouvons operer en nombres entiers sans fractions.*"

In explanation of the origin of the sexagesimal system, Cantor assumes that the Babylonians considered the year as composed of 360 days, and represented it as a circle. He thinks they calculated one day as  $1/360$  of the circumference, and that, later on, probably learning by measurement that the radius can be applied to the circumference six times as a chord, they further learned that the angle subtended by the chord was one of 60 degrees, or  $1/6$  of 360. Later on, again, when greater precision was required, they subdivided the degree into minutes.

The division of the day into 24 hours and of the hour into 60 minutes, these again into seconds, following logically the division of the angle on the scale of 60, is due to the Babylonians. A second tablet shows that the Babylonian mathematicians evolved arithmetical and geometrical progressions; but they do not appear to have invented mathematical processes such as we shall see later on among the Egyptians and the Greeks. As the Babylonians worshipped the heavenly bodies, it will readily be understood that they applied their knowledge of mathematics to the study of these, and how, therefore, this study gradually developed into astronomy.

#### THE EGYPTIANS.

Egypt is one of the oldest known countries in the world. Its inhabitants built the wonderful pyramids, and these alone suffice to establish their knowledge of practical mathematics at least. All Greek writers on the subject unanimously ascribe to the Egyptians the first discoveries in mathematics. Among others, Aristotle says this science was developed in Egypt because there the priests had



leisure to study it. Josephus, however, says: “. . . for, before Abraham came into Egypt (from Chaldea), they (the Egyptians) were unacquainted with those parts of learning” (arithmetic and astronomy).” Herodotus and many other ancient writers say that geometry in particular had its rise in Egypt. A hieratic papyrus, actually in the British Museum, was deciphered in 1877 by Eisenlohr, who found it to be a manual containing problems in arithmetic and geometry. It was written by Ahmes before 1700 B.C., and was entitled: “Directions for Obtaining the Knowledge of All Dark Things.” Might not this be the real origin of the modern term, “Black Art”?

In their works on geometry the Egyptians laid down “hardly any general rules of procedure.” Making constructions and determining areas seems to have been their strong points in geometry, the latter being necessitated by the yearly overflow of the Nile, which obliterated the boundaries of contiguous lands and forced the owners to perform frequent surveys. Ahmes gives the value of  $\pi$  as 3.1604, which is really a surprising approximation of our 3.1416. They appear to have been acquainted with the ratio 3, 4 and 5 in the construction of a right triangle. Diodorus, the Greek mathematician, says that, from the remotest antiquity, the Egyptian year was composed of 365 days and 6 hours, which, says the historian, Rollin, “was only 11 minutes short of what was requisite.” We now know that Rollin’s figures are out only a matter of 14 seconds; but they serve to show us the extraordinary precision of Egyptian methods.

Through the successful deciphering of the hieroglyphics by Champollion, Young and others, we now know the Egyptian system of notation. One (1) was represented by a vertical staff; it resembled our figure 1. Ten looked like a horseshoe, the curve being above. As the additive principle was recognized in writing these, three horseshoes and two staves meant 32. This is evidently a primitive application of the decimal system. They had developed also a system of fractions; but, though, as said before, the Babylonians had a constant denominator, 60, with a variable numerator, the Egyptians had, on the contrary, a constant numerator, 1, with a variable denominator. They had  $\frac{1}{3}$ , but could not conceive of  $\frac{2}{3}$ ;  $\frac{1}{5}$ , but not  $\frac{2}{5}$ ,  $\frac{3}{5}$  or  $\frac{4}{5}$ . As a contrast, I may add that the early Romans had a constant denominator, 12, with a variable

numerator. Fractions offered great difficulties to the ancients; and, to demonstrate this, it is sufficient to say that, in order to express  $\frac{2}{5}$ , the Egyptians wrote  $\frac{1}{3}$  and  $\frac{1}{15}$  side by side, with no sign between them. The additive principle being applied, these two fractions equalled  $\frac{2}{5}$ .

The Egyptians seem to have ceased making any progress in mathematics at least 3,000 years ago, this state of stagnation being attributed to the fact that the results of mathematical research were inserted in the sacred books which, later on, it was considered a sacrilege and even heretical to alter in any manner.

#### GREECE.

We have now reached the brightest lights among the ancients: I refer to the Greeks. About the year 625 B.C., Psammetichus, one of the kings of Egypt, conquered the eleven other kings of that country with the aid of Greek pirates. Commercial intercourse was naturally soon established between the two countries; and Greek scholars, learning of the advanced state of science in Egypt, flocked to the land of the Pharaohs to become acquainted with the rich stores of knowledge possessed by the Egyptian priests. Thales, Pythagoras, Plato, and many others visited the land of the Nile, and Egyptian ideas were thus transplanted across the Mediterranean into Greece, where they stimulated thought, directing it into new channels and opening up new fields to its activity. Elementary Geometry was thus introduced into Greece; and "when the Hellenian philosophers applied their already highly cultivated minds to its study, this science made rapid headway along the path of progress." With the characteristic Greek spirit, so aptly described by Plato when he said: "Whatever we Greeks receive, we improve and perfect," they developed geometry to the point that its very name is that of one of their great geometricians—Euclid.

To Thales, of Miletus, the Greeks are indebted for the introduction of geometry into their country. He studied in Egypt, and is said to have amazed King Amasis by measuring the height of the pyramids from their shadows. He is credited with the invention of the theorems on the equality of vertical angles, and of the angles at the base of an isosceles triangle, also the bisection of any circle by its diameter, and the congruence of two triangles having a side and two adjacent angles equal respectively. He applied this last

theorem to the measurement of the distance of a ship from shore. He also began the study of scientific astronomy, and acquired great fame by predicting a solar eclipse in 585 B.C.

To Anaxagoras, the pupil of one of Thales' pupils, is traced the first attempts at the quadrature of the circle. He amused himself at this while in prison for some unrecorded crime.

There were five successive schools of Greek mathematicians, viz.: The Ionic, to which Thales belonged (645-546 B.C.); Pythagorean (580-500); the Sophist (480-370); Platonic (431-404); First Alexandrian (338-146 B.C.), and the Second Alexandrian, which began with the Christian era.

During this period the Greeks made immense progress, laying down the principles of all modern work in that science. The brightest part, however, of it was that of the First Alexandrian School, during which flourished Plato, Aristotle, Euclid and Archimedes, those gigantic intellects whose light still illuminate the world. I shall not dwell upon Plato and Aristotle, as their line of thought did not lead them to the development of mathematical ideas, though Plato gave much time to the philosophy of Arithmetic. He, however, called calculation "a childish and vulgar art," which saying does not surprise us when we consider the system of Greek notation. Of Euclid we must say that research reveals that the greatest part of what appears in his *Elements* was not originated by him. But he was the most systematic of the mathematicians of his age; and, by a careful selection of materials gathered by him from the works of the various mathematicians who belonged to the schools enumerated above, and a logical arrangement of these materials, he left a great and lasting monument to his name. His *Elements of Geometry* have of late been severely criticized. He wrote other works, among them one on *Optics*, in which he lays down the principle that light proceeds from the eye and not from the object seen.

An idea of the importance of the work of Archimedes may be gathered from the following list of his extant books: 1, two books on *Equiponderance of Planes or Centres of Plane Gravities*, between which is inserted his treatise on the *Quadrature of the Parabola*; (2) two books on the *Sphere and Cylinder*; (3) the *Measurement of the Circle*; (4) *Treatise on Spirals*; (5) *Treatise on Conoids and Spheroids*; (6) *The Sand-Counter*; (7) two books on *Floating Bodies*; (8) *Fifteen Lemmas*.

As we have seen, the Greeks made great progress in geometry; on the contrary, however, they made but poor headway in arithmetic, the chief cause of which was their intricate notation. Like the Roman notation, the Greek was the alphabet, to each of the letters of which was ascribed a certain value. An idea of the difficulties of even a simple multiplication question may be obtained by giving the values 1, 2, 3, etc., to A, B, C, etc.; then setting down a multiplicand and a multiplier in these alphabetical symbols, multiplying them and expressing the product in the same symbols. After having done this, the reader will not be surprised that arithmetic made slow progress in Greece, nor that Plato called it "a childish and vulgar art."

#### THE EARLY ROMANS.

The early Romans, imitators in philosophy, in literature and art, did not even imitate in mathematics. The only Roman author of note in mathematics was Boethius, and even he originated nothing of value.

#### THE HINDOOS.

While the Greeks developed geometry or the science of *Form*, the Hindoos attached themselves to that of *Numbers*. Their chief attainment was that of solidly establishing the principle of place-value by their ingenious use of the zero to represent the absence of value. The invention of the zero is one of the most important events in the history of mathematical science, and probably has been one of the chief factors in the progress of all sciences within the last three or four centuries. The Hindoos evolved several important processes both in algebra and arithmetic, a highly progressive feature of their work being that, unlike the Greeks, they did not solve each problem individually, but rather invented general methods applicable to the solution of similar problems.

#### THE ARABS.

After their extraordinary military exploits in the 8th century, the Moors, who, for a time threatened to overrun Europe, settled down to a more civilized state of life. Strange as it may seem to us who know them as they are at the present day, these Moors were much given to intellectual advancement. They established universities in Cordova, Granada and Seville, in Spain, which they had conquered. To fill the positions of teachers, they invited Arab



scholars, who taught sciences, notably algebra, geometry and arithmetic. Their methods were partly Greek, partly Hindoo. Fortunately for the advancement of science generally throughout the world, the Hindoo methods prevailed in their teaching of arithmetic, and, as a result, our modern method of notation was firmly established in Europe, though it was not generally adopted till nearly five centuries after the arrival of these Arab teachers in Spain. It has been said that the Arabs were "learned but not original." Their chief title to glory is due to their having introduced the so-called Arabic Notation into Europe.

#### THE INTRODUCTION OF ARITHMETIC INTO EUROPE.

While the Mohammedans were thus progressing in the so-called worldly sciences, though all true science comes from God, the rest of Europe was firmly establishing Christianity within its borders, and, politically speaking, was in the melting-pot of civil wars, from which was to emerge the civilization so ruthlessly attacked in August, 1914, by the modern Hun. During these ceaseless conflicts, it is no matter for wonder that education gave way to military training, and was thus neglected. This condition of affairs is too often overlooked when speaking of the so-called Dark Ages.

Secular learning was not, however, wholly at a standstill, for we read that Charlemagne caused learning to flourish throughout his empire, establishing a system of parish schools, in which the parish priests or their vicars were, by law, obliged to instruct the children of the poor without any charge. (Drioux, Hist. of France.)

Charlemagne called about him the most famous scholars of Europe, among them being Alcuin, whose pupil he became. Alcuin directed Charlemagne's educational system, founding schools in the great sees and monasteries. Judging by our present standards, however, the mathematical work of Alcuin was of a very elementary character.

#### GERBERT.

A really great genius, however, was the monk, Gerbert (zharebare), born in Auvergne, France, who afterwards became Pope Sylvester II. He belongs to the 10th century. After studying theology, he went to Spain, where he studied mathematics, and, on his return, taught in Rheims, where he acquired great fame. Gerbert's pupils went even further than he had done in the spread of

mathematical science. Among them was Athelard of Bath, an English monk, who, disguising himself as a Mohammedan student, obtained entrance into the Moorish university of Cordova in 1120, made a copy of Euclid's Elements, and carried it out with him. This copy is said to have been the model of all editions of Euclid till 1533.

#### LEONARDO OF PISA.

At the beginning of the 12th century, the Hindoo system of notation, that is, our Arabic system, had partly supplanted the cumbrous Roman system. It was left to Leonardo of Pisa, recognized as the greatest mathematician of the 13th century, to firmly establish the Arabic System, through the diffusion of his great book, "Liber Abaci."

"The Italians," says Peacock in his "Encyclopædia of Pure Mathematics, London, 1847," "were in familiar possession of commercial arithmetic long before the other nations of Europe." To them we are indebted for the Rule of Three, Loss and Gain, Fellowship (Partnership), Exchange, Simple and Compound Interest, Discount, etc.

The rest of the space at my disposal will not permit me to give more than the names of famous mathematicians who lived from the 12th century till our own times. By consulting the Encyclopædia Britannica, the reader may obtain the list of the works written by these men whose light will forever shine upon the pathway of science. Among the most notable names are the following:—

Nicole Oresme, a Norman bishop, who wrote on fractional powers; Jordanus Nemorarius, a German monk, who treated of the properties of numbers, in 1496; Albertus Magnus; George Purback; Roger Bacon, the celebrated English monk; Lucas Pacioli, who, in 1494, published his "Summa de Arithmetica, Geometria, Proportionione et Proportionalita"; Sir John Billingsley, who, with the aid of John Dee, made the first English translation of Euclid's Elements from manuscripts just brought into Europe by Greek refugees, who fled their country after the fall of Constantinople into the hands of the Turks, in 1453; Regiomontanus, Bishop of Ratisbonne, who revived the study of trigonometry; Copernicus, Canon of Frauenburg Cathedral, in Germany, famous as the author of the theory on the solar system; Nicolas Cusa, Cardinal-Bishop of Brixen in the Tyrol, who, one hundred years before Copernicus,

taught that the earth went around the sun; Galileo, during whose trial for heresy the Copernican theory was denounced as false, since it apparently contradicted the Bible, this being one hundred years after the death of Copernicus who, consequently, could not have been excommunicated for his teachings on this point, as is so often asserted; Tycho Brahe; Tartaglia; Cardan; Francis Vieta, who introduced the plus and minus signs; Rahn, who first made use of the sign of division, and Robert Recorde, that of equality; Lillius Clavius, a Jesuit, who rectified the calendar; Kepler, the famous astronomer; John Napier, Baron of Merchiston, who invented logarithms; Simon Stevin, a Belgian, the inventor of decimal fractions, which are at the base of all modern scientific progress; Pascal, Newton, Euler, Leibnitz, Descartes, Laplace, Lagrange (said to be the greatest mathematician since the time of Thales), Kant, Swedenborg, Oughtred, Cavalieri, Pierre de Fermat, Wallis, Huygens, the Bernouilli, McLaurin, de Moivre, Clairaut, all of whom, and many others, have contributed without measure to the development of this noble science, and thus given to humanity powers undreamed of when mathematics first took their rise on the banks of the Tigris and the Euphrates in the early dawn of history.

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*CIVICS.*

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The teaching of Civics in our schools and colleges is acknowledged to be a necessity if our young people are to have a true conception of the duties and responsibilities involved in citizenship. While the subject has a place on the school-curriculum, it is too often given but scant attention and made to take second place to subjects that are erroneously considered of greater importance. As the conscientious teacher will not wilfully neglect the teaching of a subject of great ethical value, it may be well to discuss briefly the importance of Civics. We may perhaps epitomize the value thus: By the teaching of Civics we educate the rising generation as to:—

- (a) Good manners, politeness, etc.
- (b) Best forms of government—Democracy vs. Autocracy.
- (c) Justification of taxation—systems of taxation.
- (d) How far the State is justified in controlling or restricting personal liberty.
- (e) The Franchise—a sacred trust. The responsibility of exercising it. The responsibility of using it to promote the best interests of the State.
- (f) The call to give the State or Municipality personal service. How often we hear the lament that the best people will not enter into what is designated public life or service!

While the foregoing six topics might be amplified and emphasized, we think the mere mention of them is sufficient to establish the importance of the teaching of Civics.

Granted the importance of the subject, may we not very properly proceed to define it more fully, and indicate some of the chief aims to be kept in view in its teaching. The following may be considered a good definition: "Civics is a training in habits of good citizenship as well as a study of government forms and machinery." Putting this in the form of an equation, we have:

Civics=Training in citizenship+Knowledge of forms of government and machinery.



It is at once very evident that the "training in citizenship" is the important element, while the rest is a bit of technical knowledge of minor value, but not unimportant.

### 1. *What Are the Immediate Aims in Teaching Civics?*

To lead the child to understand that he is now, and more definitely later, a member of several groups—Family—School—Sunday School—Church—Municipality—Province—Dominion—Empire; and to realize the responsibility involved in each membership.

A better appreciation of our duty to any organization of which we are members sometimes comes when we pause to ask ourselves "What kind of a church, society, etc., would this church, society, etc., be if all of its members were just like I am?" This is a very helpful question for a pupil to ask himself or herself regarding his class or school.

### 2. *Another Aid in Teaching Civics.*

To create or at least awaken and stimulate motives that will lead to the formation of habits of order, cleanliness, willing and hearty co-operation, obedience to law, and sympathetic, altruistic service. In reaching this high and most desirable aim, we develop those qualities of head and heart that make for success—true success—not merely material success, but service.

### 3. *A Third Aim in Teaching Civics.*

To emphasize the interdependence of the welfare of the individual and the welfare of the home and community. Rules, Regulations and Laws are based on the principle of the good of the community. No one can live unto himself. In many ways we are our brother's keeper. When this is realized fully, conflicting interests reach a settlement on the basis of the greatest good to the greatest number.

### 4. *A Fourth Aim in Teaching Civics.*

To develop loyalty and patriotic sentiment and political intelligence, and to instruct the young citizen to practise it.

Loyalty is too often used in a very restricted sense. One naturally thinks of loyalty to King and Country, but should not the youth be imbued with the thought that there should be loyalty to the home, the school, the municipality? When pupils are obsessed with the full meaning of the terms, "Our Class," "Our

School," there follows a splendid co-operation that produces magnificent achievement. The same is true in sports and the spirit engendered by "team" play is a valuable life-asset and constitutes a great argument for the practice of athletics. How this training paves the way for true devotion to, and sacrifice for, "Our Country," "Our Empire"!

A development of political intelligence will lead to more independent thinking. Blessed are the people who no longer allow a few leaders to do their thinking for them. When the electorate show determination to have representatives who will be bold in their advocacy of Right and uncompromising in their opposition to Wrong, a higher ideal of statesmanship will inevitably follow.

Having indicated some of the aims to be kept in view in teaching Civics it may be well to suggest some reasons for concluding that greater attention should be given the subject in the future.

1. The war will bring changed conditions. The men who survive the struggle, having endured great hardships and suffering in their defence of their country and the liberty of its citizens, will exact a high standard of statesmanship of those who aspire to manage its affairs and make its laws.

2. There will henceforth be more independence—a less slavish adherence to party. Partizanship will lose its power in proportion to the increase of knowledge regarding one's duty to the State.

3. Great problems will demand solution:

- (a) Improvement of social conditions.
- (b) Custodial care, with the most helpful environment, of those whose low mentality makes their freedom a menace to the State.
- (c) Relation of Labor and Capital.
- (d) Conservation of National Resources.
- (e) State or Municipal ownership of all public utilities.
- (f) National and Provincial control of natural wealth.

When our legislators grapple with these problems, so vital to the best life of any community, dealing with them intelligently, honestly and fearlessly, with a single aim to make the conditions of life the best possible for the toiling masses, they should have the support of an intelligent electorate.

4. The practical will supersede the theoretical. This is becoming more and more manifest.

5. There will be less tolerance of greed and graft and a greater demand for integrity in those who seek the suffrages of the people.

6. Woman's influence will be greatly enhanced.

(a) Through her splendid work for the war.

(b) Through her enlarged sphere of activities.

(c) Through the possession of the franchise.

Having thus outlined the object and purpose of Civics as a school-study; its vital bearing on the practicalities of life; the necessity of its teaching to insure an intelligent electorate; and the greater demand there will be, through changed world-conditions and the growing tendency to democracy, we commend the subject to the earnest consideration of all who are responsible for giving the rising generation—our future rulers—the best education and training to qualify for the highest type of citizenship.

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## TRAINING SECTION.

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### *THE STUDENT IN THE PRACTICE TEACHING SCHOOL.*

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In studying the relation of the student-teacher to the practice-teaching school, two general questions present themselves for consideration:

First.—Is the practice-teaching school doing for the student all that is possible?

Second.—Is the student obtaining from the school and the opportunities it affords as much as may be reasonably expected?

The first question involves the school, its organization and the spirit of the critic-teacher. The second involves the student, his power to interpret and assimilate, his ambition and his conception of the importance and function of the school.

There are at least four points at which the practice-school exerts its shaping influence on the student-teacher, namely, in the demonstration of the principles of methodology in the observation lesson; in furnishing opportunities for the application and development of these principles in the teaching lesson; in affording facilities for acquaintance with general school administration and routine; in furnishing for the teacher-in-training an abiding inspiration.

There is some difference of opinion both as to the value of the observation lessons and the time at which they should be conducted. An investigation recently conducted in some of the Normal Schools of United States led to the conclusion that the observation lesson was generally considered of much less importance than the teaching lesson. Some schools frankly stated that they took no stock in observation teaching, and the time devoted to this varied all the way from nothing to one hundred and twenty periods in a course of two years' duration. Three methods of conducting the observation work were found to be in vogue: All the observation first, followed by the practice-teaching; observation, followed by combined teaching and observation, similar to the practice in this Province; observation, teaching and observation, and then observation continued.



There is no doubt as to the value of the last period of observation. As a result of her own efforts at teaching, the student learns the need and the process of observation.

Just as in its situation, construction and equipment the practice-school should illustrate the ideal to be attained, so in the teaching there should be set forth the detailed organization of each subject of the school course and the proper method of presentation. The observation lesson should be normal in time, matter, presentation and correlation. "What do you consider the greatest weakness of the students coming from our provincial training schools?" was recently asked of an inspector of long experience. "The ability to teach a short lesson," was the immediate answer. This is serious when one considers that the greater number of the students are of necessity required to do this very thing, and yet it is not surprising when it is recalled that with the exception of the primary grades, the assignments run into half-an-hour, and the observation lesson takes anywhere from half-an-hour to fifty minutes, and there are on record lessons of even greater duration.

The matter should be a related portion of the prescribed course for the grade, reasonably and judiciously amplified, and not some pet theme of the critic-teacher, greatly elaborated and used to show the grasp of the class or the range of the teacher.

The presentation should be rational, free from fad, and in accord with the methodology of the departmental masters of the Training School. Disagreement along these lines leads to perplexity and uncertainty on the part of the student.

The question of correlation is exceedingly difficult of solution. The period of observation is so brief that the student sees but a fragment. How a literature lesson furnishes later a reading lesson or grows out of a nature study lesson, or suggests a history lesson or a subject for composition, she has but little chance to observe. This might be remedied by a longer period in the same grade with the same critic-teacher.

What should the student observe?

Observation seems to be largely confined to matter and presentation, and this may be enough in the first stages, but as time goes on, the observation should be much more comprehensive.

Concerning the lesson, the student should observe the purpose of the lesson, the particular power which the lesson is intended to

develop, and its adaptability to the class. She should observe the form of the questions, the management of the class and the maintenance of interest. It is quite a conservative estimate to say that ninety per cent. of the students make no attempt to manage the class. The willing pupils receive the questions. She should study the class, the strong pupils and the weak pupils, and how these are dealt with. She should note the use (if any) made of text-books. While the ability to use the text-book to advantage is very necessary, it is especially true of the teachers who qualify at the Normal Schools. They go largely to the country schools, and their pupils must be taught the art of acquiring information from the printed page. She should observe the responsive effort of the class, and strive to determine the factors producing activity, or the lack of activity.

How much are the students getting from the observation lessons? This is, of course, exceedingly difficult to estimate. The following question was propounded to the department masters of one of our training schools: How many students who report on the observation lessons make seventy-five per cent.? Without hesitation the answer flashed back: "None!" This is, perhaps, fairly sweeping, but it shows at any rate that there is much to be desired.

It has been the custom in the Toronto Normal Model School to conduct two observation lessons for the section on the same afternoon, but only one lesson is reported. Some subjects are more difficult to report upon than others—for example, reading and the criticism of composition. These subjects are frequently chosen for the lesson not reported, and it is upon these subjects that the students make their poorest first attempts. This naturally leads to the question: How much value has an observation lesson that is neither reported nor discussed?

The regulations call for forty observation lessons for each teacher in training, but when these are taken in conjunction with the teaching lessons, owing to the scant time allowed for criticism, little reference can be made to the demonstration lesson.

In order to ascertain something of the value of these lessons, a questionnaire was conducted under the following conditions:—

(a) Students especially sent in to observe, but from whom no report was expected.

(b) Students following the regular course of observing and warned that a report would be expected.

(c) Students following the regular course of observing and not warned that a report would be expected.

(d) Students following the regular course of observing, and not warned that a report would be expected, and then asked to report two days later.

In the first test four questions were submitted:—

1. What was the general subject of the lesson?
2. What particular part of the general subject was taught?
3. What was the matter taught?
4. What method was employed?

Thirteen students returned answers; two answered four correctly; four answered three correctly; four answered two correctly; three answered one correctly. An average of two and five-thirteenths questions each out of four, or an average of about sixty per cent.

In the second case, where the students were warned, eleven students submitted answers to the following question, based on a grammar review: "Name the points reviewed." Four answered the total four points correctly; three answered three points correctly; two answered two points correctly; two answered one point correctly (an average of two and nine-elevenths, or a trifle over seventy per cent.). Somewhat better than the first, arising, no doubt, from the fact that the students had been warned.

In the third test, where the students were following the regular course and not warned, eight students were tested, four in each of two rooms, on four questions similar to the first group. Two answered four questions; one answered three questions; five answered two questions; an average of two and five-eighths, or about sixty-five per cent.

A last test was made with six students, in the subject of composition, two days after the lesson was taught, the questions being similar to those of one and three. Two answered three out of four correctly; one answered two out of four correctly; three answered one out of four correctly; an average of one and two-thirds, or about forty-six per cent. An examination of the answers showed that the subject and the critic-teacher had a bearing on the answers.

These results are not particularly satisfactory, especially when the simplicity of the questions is considered, and the additional fact that the students had been in training for a period of at least four months.

From the standpoint of the practice-teaching school, it is essential that every lesson taught by the student should be the best possible. For the students, it may be said that they are earnest, conscientious, and their plans show hours of patient labor, but not infrequently the results obtained are out of proportion to the effort expended.

The lesson itself is frequently an isolated point. In methodology the student has not advanced sufficiently to attack the subject with confidence and skill, and in the review of the subject matter he has not had time to reorganize along the comprehensive lines required in efficient teaching. The student has no opportunity to follow up his lesson, to have it reproduced, or to test to ascertain how much or how little has been assimilated. These difficulties are unavoidable; all one can hope to do is to reduce them to a minimum.

So far as possible, the demonstration lesson should indicate the method to be used by the student in dealing with her assignment in that division. The practice-teaching school should keep in touch with the work as taken in the lectures by the students, and, so far as possible, assign the work being taken at the time. This is not always possible. In the Toronto Normal Model, through a closer co-ordination with the science department, an improvement has been effected, and the critic-teachers report much more satisfactory results from every standpoint in elementary science, nature study and agriculture.

The regulations require a minimum of twenty teaching lessons for A students, and twenty-five for B students, and more where necessary. There are individual cases where extra lessons would prove of great value. If the student shows that she has not yet grasped the proper method of presentation in a subject, why should not the critic-teacher, after consultation with the department master concerned, recall the student for extra periods of observation and teaching. This should not interfere seriously with the lecture work.

The present organization, which requires the students to remain in the same grade for a month's work in observation and teaching, should prove advantageous, especially if the groups remain in the same rooms during the entire period. By this arrangement the student assumes something of the character of an apprentice teacher. She is given an opportunity to observe the teaching and correlation of every subject on the course. She might, with the assistance of



the critic-teacher, organize a related group of lessons, follow them up by review and testing, and by examining and returning exercises. This more completely organized form of the work is not possible where the students observe a lesson and teach a lesson, and then pass on to another room in the same grade.

One of the students recently complained that he was receiving lectures in primary arithmetic, while his assignment asked him to teach a difficult point in decimals. Since the lectures must be repeated in the Normal School, why may the students not receive the lectures according to the grade in which they are teaching, except in science and the science of education?

Are interruptions on the part of the department master or the critic-teacher helpful to the student-teacher? This depends upon the temperament of the student, but generally critical interruptions are not helpful. The student is prepared to follow a certain method of procedure, and she cannot immediately and effectually change. She feels the very foundations slipping from beneath her feet. It is common knowledge among critic-teachers that the presence of a department master, not infrequently has a seriously depressing influence upon the teaching power of the student. She loses confidence in herself, and her nervousness becomes much more manifest. A correction or an interruption under such circumstances brings a sense of humiliation, and particularly so when an extremely self-conscious young girl is teaching a class of rather large boys. Nothing should be done to cheapen the student-teacher in the eyes of the class. In criticism, principles should receive attention, and the spirit of encouragement should prevail. Every effort should be made to enable the student to teach as effectively as possible. The aim is not merely to place a value on the lesson nor to show her how badly she has performed, but to enable the student to develop teaching ability.

The teacher-in-training has but little opportunity to become acquainted with the business of the school, its organization, equipment, methods of keeping records and the use to be made of the records, nor with methods of developing and maintaining discipline. When the student comes into the practice-teaching school, she should be there before school is assembled—some consultation with the critic-teacher may be necessary—and she should remain until the work for the day is done. She should be regarded as an organic

part of the room, and not merely a guest or a tolerated spectator. Of course, this phase of school work is fully discussed in the lectures on school management, but to see school management skilfully applied must prove not less helpful than the lectures upon the subject.

In the last analysis, the real things of life are the intangible things. The inspirations we receive and the ideals implanted are the influences which prompt us to effort and efficiency. Not the least value of the practice-teaching school is its inspirational function. Long after a particular lesson and a particular method have passed from memory, the personality of the critic-teacher and the attitude of the class will continue to furnish an ideal. Above all things, the critic-teacher should be free from artificiality, and should maintain a natural and sympathetic enthusiasm which encourages effort. There should always be evidence that behind the lesson, however brilliantly taught, stands the pupil and his welfare. On the part of the class there should be exhibited a natural confidence, freedom and respect, and a readiness to take part. It has been asserted that practice-teaching schools exist for the larger training institution of which they form a part. This is an indisputable statement, but it must always be borne in mind that whatever interruptions may be necessary in the work of the school to meet the requirements of the students and the lecturers, these interruptions should be made with the greatest consideration. An efficient practice-teaching school is one of the greatest assets of the training school.

Perhaps, in closing, a few generalizations may be permitted.

Observation lessons should be normal, not show lessons.

Either discussion or report is necessary to make the observation lesson effective.

That some more definite organization of the demonstration course would prove of value.

Teaching lessons should be designed to give a more comprehensive view of the correlation of the subjects of each grade.

The closest possible co-ordination with the other departments of the training school should be maintained.

The connection of the student with the room in which she is teaching should be made as organic as possible.

A handbook containing suggestions and directions on every phase of the student's connection with the practice-teaching school should be issued to each incoming class.

## A TWENTIETH CENTURY GRAMMAR.

ANDREW STEVENSON, M.A., LONDON NORMAL SCHOOL.

(“*Nihil infelicius grammatico definitore.*” Scaliger, 1540-1609.)

English Grammar as a subject of study is now clearly on the defensive. It looks as if it must justify itself or go. The many virtues that have been attributed to the study by teachers and textbook writers do not seem to have been realized in practice, or at least not realized to an extent to justify the time and energy that have been spent on the subject.

Nevertheless it is legitimate to maintain that English Grammar has various notable values. It is useful as a preparation for the study of foreign languages, for the interpretation of literature, as an aid to judgment in oral reading, and to the attainment of clearness and force of expression in English composition, whether oral or written. Moreover, when the subject has been properly presented, it seems reasonable to suppose, in spite of assertions to the contrary, that English Grammar has certain formal values as a training in accurate observation, accurate modes of classification, comparison and reasoning, and accurate statement based on this observation and reasoning.

That these important results have not been generally obtained from the study of English Grammar is not due to the nature of the subject in itself but rather to faults in the mode of presentation by textbook writers and teachers.

The history of the production of textbooks in English Grammar is the melancholy history of a series of renewals of the old fatuous and futile attempt to put new wine into old bottles. Though English is a living, analytic, comparatively uninflected language, grammarians as a class have insisted upon trying to force it into the rigid moulds of definition and rule that were made for a dead, synthetic, inflected language. And even in the exceptional case where an author goes through the motions of developing his principles inductively, he really starts out by accepting the old dogmatic conclusions and then selects only such facts or imaginations as would seem to give support to these conclusions.

English Grammar as a subject of study was not introduced in

England until the Tudor period, and even then, and for long after, only in a slight measure. Lilly's Latin grammar had been revised and prescribed in 1543. John Colet wrote an introduction to Lilly's book, which introduction has been called the first English grammar. But truly it was not, properly speaking, an English grammar at all, but merely a translation into English of the elements of Latin grammar, and was designed only to aid the pupil in the acquisition of Latin. This book was the standard text in England for nearly two hundred years. There is a quaint comment in this book which has some application in later times. "The varietie of teaching of grammar is divers yet, and always will be, for that every scholmaister liketh that he knoweth, and seeth not the use of that he knoweth not."

In 1712 Richard Steele wrote a grammar in which he attempted to make the acquisition of grammatical rules more easy by expressing them in rhymes more or less forced and fantastic. In 1767 Bishop Lowth published a grammar which was notable in various respects. He defined grammar as an art, and gave a number of examples of false syntax to be corrected. This book was the basis of Murray's work, issued thirty years thereafter, and for the textbooks of the host of Murray's followers and imitators.

Dr. Lowth's dogmatic attitude may be inferred from his statement that "no authority, not even that of Shakespeare and Milton, is sufficient to justify" what he is pleased to call solecisms. But the author's dogmatism does not keep him from looseness and inaccuracy and even absurdity of statement—a fault in which he has been too faithfully followed by many of his successors. Two examples are here appended from the "new corrected edition" of 1774.

"An adjective is a word added to a substantive to express its quality."

"When the verb is a Passive, the thing acted upon is in the Nominative Case."

In 1786 appeared "The Diversions of Purley" in two large volumes, by Horne Tooke. This seems to have been the first serious attempt at a philosophic and scientific investigation of the English language. The writer quotes copiously from Anglo-Saxon and Early English as a basis for his conclusions, and, though his theories are not always sound, he deserved great credit for his mode of



procedure. Tooke felt called upon to undertake this work because of the unscientific character of the books previously published on the subject. He says, "Men easily take upon trust, are easily satisfied with and repeat confidently after others false explanations of things they do not understand."

In the year 1823 appeared the first edition of Kirkham's grammar—a work put forth as an improvement on Murray's grammar, and laying great stress on parsing and on the correction of errors. This book was an immense success, so far as popularity indicates success. There lies before me a copy of the "Third Canadian Edition, from the Sixtieth American Edition." This volume is bound in leather and was printed and published in Toronto in the year 1853. In spite of the number of editions issued, Kirkham's grammar left many things to be desired, some of which were accuracy in definitions and rules, as may be gathered from the following statements:

"A noun in the possessive case is governed by the noun which it possesses."

"An active verb is transitive when the action passes over from the subject or nominative to an object."

"The noun governed by a transitive verb is the object of an action."

"The nominative does something; the objective has something done to it."

"The nominative is the actor or subject, and the active verb is the action performed by the nominative."

The fact that school teachers all over Canada and the United States kept on for fifty years teaching such unmitigated nonsense as this merely shows what a docile and easily satisfied set of persons many school teachers are.

Lennie's grammar was partly contemporary with Kirkham's and was like it in the stress laid on parsing and the correction of false syntax. One feature of Lennie's work, and Kirkham's also, that could not be forgotten by those who were the victims of it, was the lists of prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs that were to be memorized, by sheer main strength, to serve as a basis for parsing. How little mental development was got out of such parsing may be known by considering, for instance, that we parsed the word

"so," wherever we saw it, as an adverb, because it was classed as such in the memorized list of adverbs.

After Lennie's and Kirkham's, our Ontario schools used the public and high school texts by Dr. Davies, which were based on Bullion's work, and were as faulty as their original.

A new era set in with the publication in England of Green's *English Grammar*, and in the United States, of Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*. The latter work was the basis of Dr. Seath's *High School Grammar*.

In spite of the advance made towards a more scientific treatment in later books, including the present Ontario *High School Grammar*, many of the old absurdities still survive, both in print and in teaching. It seems necessary to point out some of these which should not be allowed to appear in any future text-book and should not be continued in teaching.

It is obviously absurd to speak of Case in English as "an inflection of nouns and pronouns." Most pronouns are not inflected to show the case relations, and of the nouns none show by inflection any function or relation except the possessive. Many nouns, indeed probably most nouns, are not inflected, even for the possessive.

A similar objection holds against treating Mood as a matter of inflection. In the following sentences the word "write," without any inflection whatever, is considered as of the Indicative, the Subjunctive, and the Imperative Moods, respectively: "You write well. If you write me at all, write regularly."

Some text-book writers define the Indicative Mood as "the form of the verb which shows that the speaker views his assertion as [representing] a fact." This is, of course, absurd. It would be convenient, indeed, if liars were compelled to use a special form of the verb for their utterances, but so far these gentlemen have escaped that compulsion.

The predicate does not "make an assertion about the subject." The assertion is made about the person or thing denoted by the subject, and the predicate alone does not serve to make the assertion, for the assertion includes the subject as well as the predicate.

It is not a correct definition of a transitive verb to say that it is one that "denotes an action that is directed towards an object." In the sentence "She plays well," the action of playing must be

directed towards an object, as a piano, though, of course, the verb "plays" as used here is not transitive.

It is not correct to say that "the object of a verb is a word or group of words denoting the person or thing affected by the action expressed by the verb." In the sentence "I hear the thunder," the word "thunder" is the object of the verb "hear," but the thunder itself is not "affected" by my hearing it. Moreover, when the passive form of the transitive verb is used this definition is even less applicable.

It is absurd to speak of a verb as "agreeing with its subject in number and person" except where there is an inflection or other special form to constitute such agreement. In dealing with the past tense of the verb "move," for instance, how can we speak of agreement in any instance, since the form "moved" is used throughout? Moreover, it answers every useful purpose in parsing a verb merely to conclude with—not "agreeing with its subject so and so," but "having for its subject so and so," not mentioning person or number at all, except where there are inflections or other special forms for these.

Some writers of text-books, in presenting the conjugation of verbs, give only "thou" forms in the second person singular. Could there be anything more unreasonable and unscientific than such a presentation of the archaic and exceptional form as if it were not only the standard form but the only form?

It seems absurd to say in parsing that this, that or the other word is "understood." As a matter of fact such word is generally not understood except by the grammatical pedant. In parsing the imperative verb, for instance, it accords with the usual fact to say that the subject is "omitted" or "unexpressed," and it can easily be shown why it is omitted in the given case, and inserted in other cases.

Since in the English language the grammatical names of words are determined by their use, it is absurd to speak, for instance, of "an adjective used as a noun." One might as well speak of a Scotchman as used as an Orangeman, whenever a man of that nationality joined the Orange Lodge.

The writer of a "Twentieth Century Grammar" should show the great importance in an English sentence of position instead of

inflection in indicating the function and relation of words. He should also recognize the simple fact that, in everyday English, in Canada and the United States at least, the idea of simple futurity in connection with the verb is commonly shown periphrastically by the use of a progressive form of the verb "go" as the auxiliary, instead of by "shall" or "will." Moreover, the English language should be presented in such a text-book as a living, growing organism, living by change and improving by change. Such treatment would in time do away with the opposition to certain tendencies to change and improvement which still manifest themselves, as, for example, the tendency to drop the forms "whom" and "doesn't," the retention of which serves no good end whatever. Such treatment would also prepare the way for the introduction of a rational system of spelling. Finally, even an elementary text-book on English Grammar might well include an inductive presentation of a few of the simplest and most interesting facts and principles connected with word derivation and versification.

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## TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

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### PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

E. H. WICKWARE, D.D.S., SMITH'S FALLS.

*Ladies and Gentlemen*,—I wish to express to you my appreciation of the honor you have conferred upon me in electing me to the first office in our Department. I fully appreciate the honor, also the responsibilities coincident with it. I wish to extend greetings to those members who are here again, who have been here so often, laboring for the grand cause of Education in Ontario.

I am glad to see these stalwarts again with us, and at the same time I wish to welcome the new members, and trust they will become so interested in the meetings and enjoy the sessions to such an extent that they will return at successive Conventions, lending their heart and brain to a cause which will be greatly enriched thereby.

The possibilities of this Section—and I personally esteem it the most important of the O.E.A.—are illimitable. We have set out toward the same goal. On the way many difficulties and obstacles beset our pathway, which must be surmounted, but the manner of overcoming these varies according to the temperament of the individual, and this meeting, in open session, yearly, at Eastertide, I take it, is for the express purpose of interchange of ideas, that the weaker may gain from the experience of the stronger, that the younger may learn from his elders of maturer judgment. Therefore, to render the meeting as serviceable as possible to all, it is necessary that all members, new and old, should feel a perfect freedom to take part in discussions, remembering that the obstacles encountered during the year by the individual members are to a large extent the same or similar, and great benefit may accrue to us all as different persons view the subject from as many tangents, according as it appeals to them as individuals. Gentlemen, you have not done your duty to yourself or your Board if you return without having your particular complaint or difficulty laid before the Convention.

At our last session a Resolution was passed, moved by Mr. Laughton, seconded by Mr. Bell, "Resolved that, beginning with this meeting and in future, the representatives of town and city schools be so organized that one session of the Annual Meeting be set apart and the programme arranged for discussion of such topics as concern them only." I admit that, in the preparation of the programme, I spent a great deal of thought over this resolution. However, I have tried to abide by the spirit of it, and whether or not I have been successful the programme will show. Personally, I am interested in every branch of education, and it seems to me almost impossible to dissociate any branches whose ramifications have no influence on other branches. I mention this subject in passing as very recently I received a letter regarding the division of the Section and no doubt you will have this subject brought up for discussion at this Convention.

Another year has gone, another milestone passed, and this finds us in the third year of the great war which has convulsed the world. While we had hoped in our last session that, ere we met again, the war would have been over, peace would have dawned, with reconstruction the order of the day, yet we are thankful for the success that has attended the arms of the Allies, and believing that Right will prevail and that we have on our side the approbation of Divine Providence in a conflict, which has not been of our making, is just and is not selfish, we have the profoundest confidence in the ultimate outcome. God speed the day.

It is not my purpose to review, in the short time at my disposal, the History of Education, or to give you a summary of Educational statistics. On the contrary, I wish to be as practical as possible in my address to you and shall confine my remarks chiefly to a criticism of present conditions, and shall endeavor to point out to you improvements that, from my viewpoint, could readily be made in our system. Should I, in your opinion, become too critical, or too radical in my views, I trust you will pardon it and lay it at the door of one who is perhaps overzealous or over-ambitious for our children.

To us assembled at this time, we should, in a measure at least, take inventory of ourselves and our system. I am not given greatly to consider the past—that is gone—but a mental survey of the past is often helpful that mistakes do not recur. The opinion is often

expressed that present-day educationalists are forever experimenting without getting anywhere; that our efforts to meet conditions are largely futile. This situation obtains because it must be admitted there is much to criticize in our system of education. Not all the present ills are due, however, to those who are experimenting in order to find improved methods with which to secure better results. Many faults are attributable to the failure of a previous generation of educators to foresee coming needs. These men were in no way to blame. They did their best, as we are doing ours; but errors of the past should not be laid to the efforts of the present. Times do change and times have changed, and the present is valuable to us, therefore, that we may prepare for the future, for at no time, in my opinion, has a Section such as ours had a grander opportunity to exert a great influence in this Province than at the present. While it is the duty of the Nation to prosecute the war to a successful issue, it appears to me to be our duty to consider, above all else, after-war conditions and prepare to meet them.

“Opportunity waits upon ability.

Success upon effort.”

Let us put forth the effort.

The only persons unconvinced that times have changed are those ultra-conservatives who still believe that Latin and Algebra will help the children of the ever-present poor to solve problems dependent upon the high cost of living.

The rise of cities has deprived thousands of children of their inheritance in the way of contact with nature, of sense-training, and of normal living. The growth of tenement and apartment-house life has almost entirely removed children's opportunities to become interested in educative home tasks. The factory system has eliminated general industrial training through the establishment of the stultifying one-piece-per-man or piecework organization. Thus the schools have thrust upon them the duty of supplying all the stimuli to development which country life, home activity and a demand for general skill formerly provided. Add to this condition an indifference in the pupil, a reason for which I shall endeavor to show, and a large influx of foreign population due to immigration which we expect will obtain, and we have a further state of complication.

Milton said, "I call that a complete and generous education which fits a man to fulfil all the duties of private or civic life which may devolve upon him," and though enunciated years ago, it is as true to-day. It is well to ask ourselves just what the schools are expected to produce.

The boys and girls whom the schools send out must be equipped for self-support and intellectual growth. They must be able to cope with industrial and living conditions as they are, be qualified and ready to serve the common good, be refined by a degree of culture and good taste, and endowed with the fundamentals of a strong and honorable character.

The tools given our pupils in the past, namely the traditional studies inherited from a previous generation, fail to meet the needs of our new material or to produce the desired result. We must, therefore, adopt new tools or find new ways of using the old ones. We look to Manual and Domestic courses in our Public and High schools, Technical and Industrial schools, to fit the ever-growing proportion of the young people to support and care for themselves. Through Music, Drawing and Nature Study we hope to increase the Nation's capacity for enjoyment of life.

While granting the importance and claim of the newer branches of education, you will probably say that the curriculum is already overcrowded, and how can it be loaded up with more subjects? This is true. Reorganization and reconstruction must begin here in our Public Schools as well as in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

In my opinion, we have already too many subjects, or at least too much of these subjects; and in making the latter observation I do not wish to leave the impression that a smattering of knowledge of a subject will suffice; on the contrary, I believe in thoroughness. A place must be found for Technical Education, and this can only be done by reconstruction of the curriculum. Let us consider briefly what the curriculum now demands of us. For example, a fourth book pupil preparing for the Entrance Examination. Twelve compulsory subjects, namely: Arithmetic, Literature, Grammar, Geography, History, Spelling, Composition, Writing, Reading, Nature Study, Hygiene, Art.

Geography—entire world; Grammar—cover to cover; History—



—entire English history; Literature—page 204 to end of Reader, as well as Fourth Golden Rule Book, Dog of Flanders, Christmas Carol, Traveller and Deserted Village for supplementary reading. I consider the above course of study for a pupil of from 11 to 14 years entirely too much as well as too heavy, if we would wish to produce “a sound mind in a sound body.” Add to this vocational training, and you will surely agree that we must call a halt and demand reconsideration and reconstruction. I venture the assertion that if the opinion of those in charge of Entrance classes were taken, they would agree with my observations, and would also agree that such selections as the Traveller and the Deserted Village should have no place in the Public School curriculum.

Of all the waste of this war, the greatest by far is the waste of human life. The greatest asset of any country is human life. We are proud of past educational attainments of the Province of Ontario. We are proud of the way Ontario has conscripted the mentality of the Province by compulsory education from 8 to 14 years; and while we evince just pride we must submit that the wastage of war has placed a greater responsibility on us than ever before—that of nurturing, cultivating, and conserving the mind and life of the child and preparing that individual for Canadian citizenship.

Our schools of the future then must be so conducted that a human life should not be endangered; rather, it should be protected. Our buildings should be fitted with the most modern devices to secure proper sanitation and ventilation, that the health of the pupil be carefully guarded. The pupil should not be overworked, and proper and spacious playgrounds should be provided. Parenthetically, let me say, do not be misled by the popular cry to give up your playgrounds to raise potatoes, turnips, etc., however commendable this project may be. Your playgrounds are worth more to you and to the Empire to redden the corpseless in the arteries of your pupils, the hope of the Nation, than the transitory value of a few bushels of vegetable products. Cultivate the vacant lots, the lanes and byways; but spare to the children their recreation plot.

Medical and Dental Inspection should not only be permissible, as at present, but the Act should make it compulsory. Why should a child, physically well, by virtue of compulsory attendance at school, be subjected and exposed to disease, the forerunner of misery, if not death, when we acknowledge the value of a human life? Why

should dollars be considered when health and life are at stake? None but medically fit children should, in my opinion, be admitted to our schools, and for the others the Government should supply a means of education. Indeed, I will go further and state, and state from a working experience with the system, that Sunday Schools ought in this regard to be brought under the Act with day schools, and none but medically fit should be allowed admission to Sunday Schools. I state advisedly and authoratively that much of the good work of Medical Inspection of the day school is undone by the Sunday School and the moving-picture playhouse, both of which welcome with open arms children afflicted with exanthematous and other infectious diseases in varying stages of development.

Gentlemen, we should take this matter up with the Department and ask not only for compulsory medical inspection of children in our schools, but that Sunday Schools be included. The Smith's Falls schools have had Medical Inspection in force for the past three years, and, having watched its progress and results closely, I know whereof I speak; and moreover I may say that my views in this matter are shared by Dr. C. L. Easton, Medical Officer of Health for that town. The minds of the people of Ontario are now in a receptive state, the Government know this, and now, therefore, is the psychological moment to ask for this important measure.

We should ask for amendments to the Truancy Act. A Board should have power to appoint and pay its truant officer. Then will proper results be secured, and not until then. Usually this task is appended to the multitudinous duties of a policeman, who has already too much to do; consequently this important duty is neglected, like most others demanded of him, through no fault of his, as one man cannot accomplish the work of three, as most municipalities expect their officers to do.

I believe in compulsory education; but why compel attendance at school from 8 to 14, and allow attendance from 5 years? From 5 to 8 the pupil does not come under the Truancy Act, and may come and go from school *ad libitum*, much to the annoyance of the teacher and the detriment of the class. If we were at liberty to send the truant officer to ascertain why John Smith, age 7, absented himself from school, we would in all probability find that John was suffering from a light or otherwise form of measles, scarlet fever,

chickenpox, or a like disease; the case would be reported to the M.O.H., the home quarantined, and the school protected. However, under the Act as at present, we cannot send the officer, and in a few days John returns to school, with no visible symptoms, but passes the deadly germs to the other pupils with whom he comes in contact. I would like to see a resolution passed by this Section, recommending to the Department that the age of admission to our schools be raised from 5 to 6 years, and once having started at school, regular attendance be made compulsory and made subject to the Truancy Act.

One of the greatest menaces to Public School educational progress is the moving-picture show, which is largely to blame for the indifference of the pupil referred to above. During the year I had sent to me a clipping—I believe from the *Mail and Empire*—entitled “A Much-Needed Educational Warning,” being the report of a protest from the Teachers’ Association of Windsor, Walkerville and Sandwich against certain prevalent evils that are injurious to children in three ways. They interfere with the intellectual progress of the children at school; they lower the standard of childhood morality; they impair the child’s physical condition. The evils mentioned were moving-picture shows, cigarette smoking, and conspicuous exhibition of vulgar posters. Wise parents will not allow their children to substitute attendance at movies for rational attention to their school work. As the child’s moral nature develops, the way in which he spends his evenings will have much to do with the kind of man he is to be in after life.

The more his out-of-school time is filled up with a judicious mixture of physical play and school work, the less chance there will be for wasting it in less appropriate ways. John Burroughes, the famous American naturalist, says, “I believe if there is anything that tends to fill people’s minds with a conglomeration of cheap information without making them stop to think and digest it, it is moving pictures.” A child now cannot or rather should not gain admission unless accompanied by an adult. It would be in the interest of the schools and the State if the moving-picture houses were closed to all under school age, i.e., 14. The children would benefit thereby physically, mentally and morally.

Military training should be required of every boy attending our schools, as a qualification for citizenship, its privileges and responsibilities. Every citizen should be prepared to defend his

country when needed, and as a patriotic duty every citizen should be trained in military science for the benefit of the Government in defence; but, irrespective of the value to the Government, I consider the value of the military training to the individual receiving it of such importance as to warrant military science being made a part of the course of every Public and High School. All that can be said in favor of school sports, athletics, etc., can also be said in favor of military training, as both are destined to produce a higher type of boys, physically, mentally and morally. If wars were to be no more, I still believe military training should be retained in the schools for the good physical and disciplinary results obtained.

I would like to say a word to the members from rural school sections in particular. On two occasions during the year that is past I had the pleasure of attending School Fairs. Any school section which has not taken up this branch of educational work does not realize what it has missed as a stimulus to the school work, a recreation for the pupil and an immense educational advantage to its pupils. If you have not already embarked in this enterprise, get in touch with your nearest Ontario Department of Agriculture district representative at once. He will be glad to co-operate with you. Have your first School Fair next Fall, and note the intense interest of the pupils, their hearty and healthy competition, and the value to your school in increased community interest, even in increased interest in ordinary academic studies.

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*TECHNICAL EDUCATION.*

J. L. SPRAGUE, DIRECTOR OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION, HAMILTON.

Technical education is not a narrow form of trade training, but it is a serious attempt to reorganize our system of public instruction so that it will prepare our children for life.

Education should be preparation for life. That is the test to apply to any system of public instruction. Measured by this rule, our present system of education is a failure.

Millions of dollars are invested in plant, equipment and teaching staff in the present system of public schools. What are the returns on this investment? The answer is found in the school attendance reports of almost every town or city in the Province. Out of every thousand children starting to attend school in the Junior First Book, about 300 will finally reach the Senior Fourth Book; about 150 of these will pass the Entrance; about 75 of these will enter the High School; about 35 of these will matriculate; about 5 of these may go to College or University. In other words, over 80 per cent. of the children who pass through our Public Schools leave before they are 16 years of age. These never go to High School. Only about one out of every 75 ever go to College or University.

How well prepared for life are these children who constitute the 80 per cent. who leave school before reaching the High School? The average pupil from the Fourth Book cannot work fractions readily or accurately, and their writing is a scrawl. This is the net result of about eight years' work on the most valuable raw material with which any organization has to deal. Our present educational mill grinds out 80 per cent. of its grist in this shape. Employers hiring these children find that they have nothing to offer in exchange for their wages but their time. The result is that most of these children land in "blind alley" jobs and gradually drift by force of circumstances into the unskilled labor class of the nation.

What is the trouble with the present Public School system? It is this: We are maintaining a system of public instruction that is not adjusted to modern economic and industrial conditions. The present forms of book instruction in our schools are just so many

steps leading to entrance to the University. Everything is nicely standardized. It is an orderly system, and theoretically it is a fine achievement, but in practice it is a great failure. For eight years our children are stuffed with scraps of information about geography, history, taught arithmetic by book rules and encumbered with a lot of useless baggage. And when these children leave school we find that they have not even mastered the rudiments.

The fundamental defect is that the present system of public instruction confines itself to book work and the training of the memory faculties. Pupils have little or no opportunity to apply either arithmetic, language or spelling to practical problems. The remedy lies in introducing into our schools a larger element of vocational training. Manual Training, as now practised, is merely playing about the edges of this problem. One and a half hours per week manual training doled out to pupils in the Fourth Book, only scratches the surface. Every Public School of any size should have workshops for instruction in wood and metal work and equipment and room for domestic science and sewing and homemaking instruction. Every pupil from 12 years of age, irrespective of school standing, should be given at least one hour each day in this practical work. Arithmetic, language and spelling instruction should be correlated with this practical work. The result would be that pupils would develop constructive faculties of mind, resourcefulness, self-confidence, and would carry away with them some real preparation.

Further than this, every school of any size should have an auditorium, gymnasium and ample playground space. This does not mean more expense, but economy, because it would make possible a radical revision of the entire time-table of the average Public School. It would enable school principals to take care of just as many pupils as are now enrolled in our schools, with the same classroom space. It would result in the use of our school plant and equipment for more hours during the day and more months in the year. The total enrollment could be divided into two schools, and while one received instruction in classrooms, the other would be in the shops, in the auditorium for debates, lectures, recitations and other exercises which give pupils an opportunity to apply their language instruction; and in physical culture and

supervised play. Such schools could operate from 9 a.m. to 4 or 5 p.m., and children would be happy and grow under such treatment.

All this would lay a splendid basis for more advanced Technical training. It would give those children who leave school between 14 and 16 years of age better preparation for life, and it would provide better material for advanced Technical instruction.

How is this change in methods of public instruction to be brought about? By the School Trustees of the different communities of this Province. The Provincial Department of Public Instruction is making liberal grants in aid of vocational training in our public schools. More manual training could be incorporated in the course of instruction in the Public Schools if Boards of Education would provide the room and equipment. More Technical Schools could be built in industrial centres if the School Trustees of different communities would take advantage of what the Provincial Department of Education stands ready to grant in aid of this form of instruction. The Department pays for the entire cost of equipment and half the cost of this form of instruction. This makes this form of instruction the least expensive to taxpayers of any undertaken by the community.

More than ever we are now facing a crisis in our industrial development. We must go into this business of making men for the industries of Canada on a broad basis. If we make skilled men we can turn out products of skilled workmanship; not otherwise. Take our human raw material, train it, and we shall then be successful in shaping the raw materials of field, mine and mill into finished products that will sell in the markets of the world.

Technical Schools offer more intensive training in specific trades and engineering. Briefly, they will develop activities along the following lines:

1. All-day classes for training boys and girls of 14 years of age and upwards in specific trades. This will be pre-apprenticeship training to prepare them for a definite vocation in life.

2. Part-time classes for regular indentured apprentices from all lines of industries, for instruction in related drawing and mathematics and the underlying science of the trade. Over twenty Hamilton firms are now sending apprentices to the Technical School one-half day each week for this instruction.

3. Part-time classes for children between 14 and 17 years of

age, who leave school to go to work before completing the Public School course. The Adolescent Attendance Act gives Boards of Education authority to establish these classes and to compel attendance of these minors. This means continuation instruction one-half day each week or longer. There are now thousands of children in what are known as "child labor jobs," who should be given this instruction.

4. Advanced classes in engineering to prepare pupils to enter the School of Practical Science.

5. Evening classes for workers in business and industry.

For generations we have maintained a system of public instruction shaped to promote a small percentage of our children through High School and University into literary, medical, legal and engineering pursuits, while we have neglected to provide forms of instruction for the 80 per cent. who have to go to work in stores, mills and factories. The time has come for Boards of Education to give this system of instruction they have maintained for so many years critical examination. What is the output for all this expenditure of the taxpayers' money? What kind of finished product do you turn out? You deal with the most precious raw material of the nation—human material, the children of the community. They enter our schools—what for? Simply to pass from book to book and win a diploma? Not that, but to be truly *prepared for life*. When they leave our schools to-day, are they prepared for life? That is the problem which School Trustees must solve to be true to their trust, and the time for solving it is now.

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*MUSIC IN THE SCHOOLS.*

GEO. W. FLUKER, MUSICAL DIRECTOR, SMITH'S FALLS PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Music ranks with the recognized necessities of the human race. The desire for Music is earth-wide. This world-wide desire or passion manifests itself everywhere, from millionaire to millhand—the student looking for inspiration and example—the day laborer with an uncultured hunger for just melody and rhythm. “The gift of song is chiefly lent to give consoling music for joys we lack.” The importance of the study of music is now freely recognized. The Ontario Department of Education includes music in the syllabus. In numerous cities and towns it is placed as a regular subject in the school curriculum. Progressive inspectors, Boards of Education and teachers are fully alive to the beneficial effect of the study of music as a refining moral influence in the schoolroom. Music as a branch of study worthy a place in the Public School must be taught with other aims than that of cultivating the musical talent of those who have it, and making musicians of such as desire to be artists and teachers of music. Music must be used as a means to an end, and that end the same for which all study is given. Unless it can be so taught as to serve as a valuable aid in the physical, mental and moral culture of the pupil, it has no place in the Public School. “That it can be so taught has been proven conclusively.”

*As a Means to Physical Culture.*—Music is declared to have the power of so affecting the whole nervous system as to give sensible ease in a large variety of disorders, and in some cases a radical cure. A Canadian nurse, who at the present time is engaged in hospital work in London, England, referring to shell shock, relates that music frequently supplies the stimulus that awakens the memory, as it does also in overcoming mutism. A patient, she says, who has been dumb for a longer or shorter period, will suddenly, to his own surprise and to the surprise of his companions, find himself joining in a familiar chorus. One of the first points to be remembered by a teacher of music is the position of the pupil. Deep, natural breathing is impossible when the body is in a cramped position. Make deep breathing a habit, and you have done more for the good health of

the pupil than you can possibly do by any other means. When this habit has been once formed the body is made more erect, the lungs are expanded, the circulation is improved and the whole system is invigorated. The direct effect on the health and physique of the child is invaluable.

*As a Means of Mental Discipline*, no branch of study can hold a higher rank than music. The concentration of attention and mental energy necessary to sight singing is quite equal to that required to solve the most difficult problems. The rapidity with which the mind must work, to see at a glance the length and pitch of the notes, to grasp the musical phrase, to read the words connected with it, to give the correct rhythm, not to mention the variations required in time and power, can hardly be appreciated. The refining and elevating influence of good music is seldom denied. The school-room in which singing is a daily exercise is pervaded with an atmosphere of true culture and refinement, which the study of the three R's can never give. Through the assistance which music lends, the discipline of the school no longer occupies the greater portion of the teacher's time and attention. A superintendent of a Reform School, who keeps the boys singing when at their work, explains: "The devil never comes where good music is." We must not forget the fact that in music we are not only teaching that which we cannot see, but that of which we can give no idea by any picture, or by any drawing, with material objects of any kind, whether animate or inanimate; where the thing itself cannot be presented, a very fair idea of it can be gained by picture or other representation; in music we deal with the reality in order to gain any knowledge of it. Therefore what not to teach should be as seriously considered as how best to teach the things most essential to be known. The great value and influence of the study of music, physically, mentally and morally, will not be fully realized until the time now wasted in dry mathematics and nomenclatures of theory and notation is spent in keeping constantly before the mind the things essential to be known, together with their true representation.

*Voices.*—Realizing that children's voices are more flexible and more easily affected for good or ill than those of older people, the duty of the teacher to at least keep the voices in their natural, unstrained condition is evident. "We learn to do by doing." "The

first step for a child to take in learning to sing is to sing." "Music is the language of the emotions." The quality of the voice depends largely on the feelings. To play upon the emotions of a child means, then, to change the quality of his voice. For this reason, to the lesson in rote or imitative singing has been delegated the work of awakening and expressing emotion, and through this and other means the training of the voice is accomplished. Not that the intellect is supposed to be idle during this work, but that all the thoughts are to be concentrated upon the meaning and emotion expressed in the song, and by the judicious management of the teacher this concentration of energy brings about results in the way of the artistic performance of music, which can be accomplished with children by no other means. A teacher of rote singing should be a singer of sufficient cultivation to sing with a natural pure tone, clear enunciation, accurate time, and intelligent expression. Music, like poetry, is characterized by a regularity of rhythm and accent. Much of the pleasure which we derive from music is due to this fact. It is unwise to teach mathematics of time while the thing itself is left untouched. Difficulties encountered by many teachers in teaching time are mainly due to the fact that they endeavor to have the pupils apply it in practical work before it has been mastered by itself. This may be compared to one attempting to manufacture a product of mechanical art requiring a skilful application of tools the use of which he has never learned. It may also be compared to setting a pupil adrift upon a stream before he has learned how to pilot a boat, for rhythm is the stream, tune is the boat and time is the helm by which the pupil must steer. Reading is the translation of written signs into songs. The system of music-reading is a language which, when properly understood, may be read as one reads a book; and which, when taught with the care and understanding thought necessary for teaching other branches of study, is as easily learned by a child as his reading lessons. The study of music is dry, hard and uninteresting to children when presented abstractly or in theory, but it is fraught with the greatest interest when their minds are kept constantly in contact with the real facts. Our teaching of music must be made to conform with natural laws. "The known before the unknown," "The easy before the difficult," "The simple before the complex," and "One thing at a time," are maxims with which every teacher is familiar. The



teacher who is familiar with educational principles and the natural laws on which they are based can be trusted to work out new methods and ways of his own to promote and stimulate interest, because he understands what he is doing. Efficient teaching can be looked for through improved knowledge and increased skill in methods of teaching by the regular teacher. As a branch of study in the Public School, music involves then: 1st, General Culture. "To promote natural breathing, to train the ear and the voice, to cultivate taste for good music, to teach a good style of singing." 2nd, Mental Discipline. "To teach relative pitch, to cultivate a sense of rhythm, to teach symbols of music, to teach sight singing, the presentation of the work must be tasteful, attractive and interesting." Primary grade pupils are taught to sing easy, bright rote songs, receive instruction in breathing exercises, ear and voice training. In due time the class is promoted to 1st book grade. Here similar methods, exercises in rhythm, pitch and enlarging the voice compass, are employed. In the 2nd book grade, greater attention is given to breathing, articulation, vocalization, and the children readily sing at sight. In the 3rd book grade, that point at which youthful minds ask the why and wherefore of things, "symbols of music, staff notation, sharped fourth, flatted seventh, key signatures one to four sharps and one to four flats are introduced. The primary grade class of, say five years ago, having reached the fourth book or entrance grade, is now prepared to take up the study of reasonably difficult songs and exercises in two parts and three parts in treble and bass clefs, together with studies in transposition and minor mode. All this is accomplished concurrently with the regular branches of study, and affords an agreeable change in the routine of school work. Systematic teaching of singing in the Public School will go a long way toward giving us a generation of improved singers, speakers and readers. "We cut our consonants, we mutilate our vowels and telescope our small words." An early training in singing is one of the hopeful ways of securing an improvement to round our *o*'s, to broaden our *aw*'s and deeper our *r*'s are simple points and might be placed in any school curriculum with beneficial effect.

#### MUSIC IN LARGER SPHERE.

Music, its value and influence in a larger sphere. Music plays



on the emotions of the human heart, swaying it as it will. Listen to those tender, soothing songs that calm the excited and make the troubled forget their care, carrying them back to thoughts of love, home and happiness. Those old songs that have been cherished and handed down from generation to generation and have the peculiar power of opening the floodgates of memory, causing kaleidoscopic views to pass before the vision of scenes with which the songs are more intimately connected. "Home, Sweet Home," "Rock of Ages, Cleft for Me," "Nearer, My God, to Thee," "Abide with Me," "Lead Kindly Light"—such songs as these can never lose their power; they have comforted thousands of souls, and will do so while the world lasts. Music is a glorious gift of God. Time spent in its study is time well spent. Money spent in the cultivation of music is money well spent. Children who sing at their play will hardly quarrel; parents who sing will find the burden of their daily tasks grow lighter. There is rest and recreation in music. Once a frail minister, who thought that the progressive wheels of the world's work would stop if he took a vacation, slept and dreamed a dream. He dreamed that he died and appeared before the Lord. The Lord seemed surprised to see him, and asked, "What did you come so soon for? Why did you not take needed rest and recreation and so prolong your life?" The minister wakened. He went to Europe. He took rest and recreation. He recovered his health and is alive to-day, and is known for inspiring words all over America. The charm of music is great; it hushes the infant to rest; at the family altar it uplifts the soul in worship to God and Heaven. In the home it fosters the home spirit, and strengthens family ties. If the Gift of Song is a gift Divine, the disposition to sing is a holy influence. "Teach the child to sing."

Were music taught in all our Public Schools, urban and rural, the time would soon come when the great mass of the people could sing, and then our churches would not suffer, as many of them do now, for good music; but good choir singing and good congregational singing would be the rule instead of the exception. When the great congregations can sing as with one voice, can there be any doubt as to an increased interest in the church service or of the superior efficiency of such a service to touch the heart. Byron says: "There's music in the sighing of a reed; there's music in the gushing of a rill; there's music in all things if men had ears; their

earth is but the echo of the spheres." Music is like the band of fate, from which no patriot can escape when called for in defence of home and country. The present day is marked by a deepening and quickening of the national conscience. Nowhere has this growth more revealed itself than in the Public School, where patriotic themes, occasions, and the study of National history receive a degree of attention never before known. Recent events in our national life have served to intensify this trend and deeply stir the spirit of Patriotism. This spirit, in turn, finds expression in National music and patriotic songs. One has but to mention as inspiring school songs, "Rule Britannia," "Ye Mariners of England," "Oh, Canada, our heritage, our love, Thy worth we praise all other lands above; From sea to sea, throughout thy length, From pole to border land, At Britain's side whate'er betide, Unflinchingly we'll stand, With heart we sing, God Save the King, Guide thou the Empire wide do we implore, and prosper Canada from shore to shore"—in the magnificent singing of a great National Chorus, the swelling harmonies of a great cathedral organ, now in thunder peal, now in cadence gentle as zephyr breeze, or the martial music of a splendidly equipped, perfectly trained military band, the exciting skirl of the bagpipes, or the clear clarion tone of the bugle sounding the advance on the scarred, battered battlefields of France and Flanders. To-day, when Canadian youth, aye, and veteran too, is fighting side by side with the British Empire for free institutions, democracy and liberty, yielding their lives that you and I may enjoy the blessing of British liberty and British freedom. In fury the war-storm rages; but on the distant hills we see a glimmer of a dawn of peace; now there is a shimmer of sunshine over the waves; now there is a rainbow over the tumult of the surging waters. It is true that there are thousands of our splendid men falling in the fight. Let us sing of their valor and heroism. Let us sing to the land that gave our heroes birth. In the schoolroom, the home, the church, the concert hall. At the military training camp, on the march, at the battle front. With pride and gratitude we recognize the great value, the powerful influence of music.

*THE ADOLESCENT SCHOOL ATTENDANCE ACT.*

T. SIDNEY KIRBY, OTTAWA.

This Act was first placed on the Statutes of Ontario in 1913. It was amended in 1916. The Board of Education of the City of London has, I understand, adopted a resolution approving of its general principles, but so far has made no real attempt to put it into force. I think I am correct in stating that no other School Board in the Province of Ontario has taken any action in regard to the Act. In discussing it we cannot, therefore, consider its merits because of any good effect it has yet had upon the people of Ontario. We must consider what it might do for the youth of this Province if it were put on a working basis.

Let me, first of all, state briefly the purpose of the Act. It is to give School Boards and educational authorities some measure of control over young people of both sexes between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years. The present School Law allows any child to leave school at the age of fourteen years, whether or not he has completed the elementary school course. The Adolescent School Attendance Act would extend this age of compulsory attendance to seventeen years unless the child had obtained a Senior Public School Diploma, which now requires a two years' course after passing the High School Entrance examination. In saying that the Act would give school authorities control over young people until the age of seventeen years, it must not be inferred that all these children between the age of fourteen and seventeen would spend full time at day schools during this three-year period. The Act gives to the authorities bringing it into effect great latitude in determining the kind of school that young people are to attend and the amount of time they are to spend at school during this period. A Board might decide to extend the period of school attendance from fourteen to sixteen years only, or from fourteen to fifteen; or it might decide to make the provisions of the Act apply to boys and not to girls; or it might require boys and girls to attend day classes from fourteen to fifteen, half-day classes from fifteen to sixteen, and evening classes only from sixteen to seventeen. To put the matter

in another way, the School Board which passes a by-law bringing into effect this Adolescent School Attendance Act may use its own judgment regarding the time that young people are to attend classes after the age of fourteen years, and the nature of the classes they are to attend; but the Board cannot exercise any supervision after the boys and girls have reached the age of seventeen, nor must a Board necessarily treat all boys and girls of the same age in the same way. The Board invoking the Act would have a right to decide each case on its merits. It might require one fifteen-year-old boy to attend full-time classes between fifteen and sixteen years, and allow another boy of the same age to work during the day and attend evening classes.

Is this Act in the interests of the people of the Province? Has the State any right to exercise a compulsory control over anything beyond elementary education? The question is a big one and cannot be disposed of in a word or two. Less than fifty years ago thousands of parents in England objected to the State exercising any compulsory control over the education of their children, claiming that a parent had a right to educate his children or not, just as he liked, and that a compulsory education act was an interference with the freedom of the individual. Much water has flowed under the bridge during the past fifty years, and few men could now be found in any English-speaking country who would claim the right of a parent to decide whether or not his child should be given the rudiments of an English education; but if the principle of State control over the education of a child be once admitted, who is to say where it shall stop? Why fix the period arbitrarily at fourteen years? Why say that the child shall be compelled by the State to learn reading, writing, and arithmetic, and not be compelled to master the elements of some vocation by means of which he can make himself a useful member of society? During the past three years, owing to the stress of war, we have seen the State exercise a control over many things which we had formerly thought were strictly the domain of private rights, and, if in time of great national stress, it is the duty or even the right of the State to exercise such control, it can surely be argued that in time of peace the State has an equally just claim to exercise a control which will make more efficient citizens of its young people.

No one can successfully hold that our High Schools and Col-



legiate Institutes are not in large measure vocational schools. There are in these schools comparatively few young people who are not preparing themselves for some vocation by which they expect to earn a living. They are preparing to be teachers, or lawyers, or doctors, or bookkeepers, or engineers, and the fact that a large part of the instruction given them has a cultural value in itself, quite irrespective of their proposed vocation, does not make it any less true that their main object in taking this course is to fit themselves for some vocation. Is it not true that our present system is a lopsided one, and that, while our teachers, lawyers, doctors, and engineers are receiving vocational training largely at the expense of the State, the great mass of our young people between the ages of fourteen and seventeen are floundering about trying to adapt themselves to some vocation without any definite and adequate preparation for that vocation? Is it not true that our present system gives vocational training at the expense of the State to that part of our population who could best afford to pay the full cost of its vocational training and denies facilities for vocational training to the great mass of the people who have most need for it? From the day he enters the high school until he graduates from the university or the law school, the State bears certainly more than fifty per cent. of the education of the young lawyer. The same thing is largely true of the education of teachers, doctors, preachers, and engineers. I know it is easy to argue that these professions are absolutely necessary for the State, that the members of them are the leaders of our social system, and that unless they are well educated our civic life and institutions of all kinds would suffer. I am willing to grant the truth of this, but at the same time contend that the printer, the plumber, the bookbinder, the machinist, and all other workers have an equal claim upon the State for guidance and instruction in their respective callings. Our present discrimination is due to a survival of the old idea that a trade must be learnt in a practical way by apprenticeship, and that the members of a learned profession are educated through lectures and by reading books. We have allowed the apprenticeship system to go almost entirely out of practice, and have taken no satisfactory step to replace it by vocational and trade schools. The result is that thousands of young people, especially boys, in our modern towns and cities drift about from fourteen to seventeen trying many occupa-

tions without any intelligent guidance, and without any opportunity to find out through workshop practice for what particular occupation they are best fitted by nature. This is an irreparable loss to the individual and a serious loss to society. I do not, of course, claim that society can ever reach a condition where every one of its members is properly trained for the vocation to which he is best suited by nature, because, even after every effort has been made by the State to provide adequate opportunities for vocational training, there will remain a considerable number who, through lack of steadfastness of purpose or moral backbone, will drift from one occupation to another and never really be prepared for any; but surely it is a duty of the State to reduce this latter class to the least possible number. This, as I understand it, is the purpose of the Adolescent School Attendance Act. It is designed to give society a control over young people during that period when they most need control and when, more than at any other period in their lives, they are susceptible to influences both good and bad which are likely to determine to a large extent their future.

The Adolescent School Attendance Act very properly does not apply to a board of rural school trustees. It is probably assumed that young people living upon farms who have reached the age of fourteen years will at that age either have voluntarily chosen a vocation which will require them to attend school, or will have decided to follow agriculture in some of its branches; and if they have made this latter decision it is surely reasonable that they should begin the study of the practical part at the age of fourteen. It is likely that comparatively few villages and small towns could put the Act into force with any possibility of profit. Their conditions are too nearly like those of the rural districts. It would seem, therefore, that for the present at any rate this Act is of practical interest to only the towns and cities of Ontario.

Let us now examine exactly what might be done by a town or city Board with this Act. Assuming that our town or city has already in operation a system of high and public schools, let us consider what further machinery and equipment is necessary in order that the Adolescent School Attendance Act might be profitably put into operation. It would probably be found that at the present time at least half of the boys who have reached the age of fourteen years have not completed even the elementary school

course; and of those who do complete it, it will be found that less than half enter a high school and attend it long enough to receive from it any real benefit. This means that at the most not more than one-quarter of the boys between fourteen and seventeen years of age in our towns and cities are now attending schools, or it means that a system of vocational and industrial training for adolescent boys would have to provide for about seventy-five per cent. of the total number. There are in our towns and cities, for every one thousand of population, not less than thirty-six boys between fourteen and seventeen years of age, and not more than five to ten of these boys are now receiving instruction in school. This means that even if we provide for boys only, we should have to provide some kind of training for not less than twenty-five boys for every one thousand of population, or that we should have to provide for twenty-five hundred boys in a city of one hundred thousand. To do this would require an enormous extension of our present school accommodation and a greatly increased expense to the taxpayers; but if it could be made the means of raising our average intelligence and skill, it would be well worth while.

It may safely be assumed that a considerable number of these twenty-five hundred boys would find places in the schools, public and high, already established, but by far the larger number of them would require to be provided with facilities for some kind of vocational training. In considering this question of vocational training, it would be necessary to consider the local industries of the town or city and the surrounding country, and this for two reasons: First, because the boys would naturally wish to prepare themselves for the industries of their own neighborhood; and second, because it could reasonably be assumed that a part of the boys' time between the ages of fourteen and seventeen would be spent in an apprenticeship, or in part-time work to some one of the local industries. There are, however, certain basic forms of training which develop a boy's intelligence and fit him for a place as a skilled workman, or a foreman in almost any industry. Such basic industries are represented by wood-work, which would include a knowledge of the turning lathe, and a mastery of the ordinary tools used by a carpenter or a cabinetmaker, and simple forging and elementary machine-shop practice. With all of these there would naturally be a well-developed course in drawing and shop



arithmetic. Plumbing, tinsmithing and electrical work are also industries which have a high educational value and are a part of the industries of every town and city. Printing is another form of training which gives mechanical skill and develops a high order of intelligence. I think it might fairly be assumed that any vocational work given beyond these I have mentioned would depend wholly upon the local needs of the town or city undertaking the work. In some it might be highly desirable to specialize in such an industry as paper-making, in another the making of furniture, in another some form of textile industry; but all these would have to be decided by local needs.

It can readily be seen that to establish classes to meet these needs would be no easy matter. It would be necessary to have for the younger adolescent boys—say those between fourteen and fifteen years—full-time classes covering the ordinary school day, or about twenty-five hours per week. In these classes the boys would probably spend not less than half their time in shop work, the other half being spent in a study of the theory of their work, under the name of Elementary Science and English, which would include composition, spelling, with perhaps the addition of writing and arithmetic. In the second year, for boys from fifteen to sixteen, experience in other countries has shown that the best results are secured by having the boys spend half time in some wage-earning industry and half time in the schoolroom. For boys over sixteen years, voluntary day classes, with compulsory evening classes for certain boys, have been found to work very well. My own opinion is that if these vocational classes were once established and the scheme on a good working basis, very little compulsion would have to be used in order to secure the attendance of nearly every boy in a town or city. The actual advantages to the individual and to the community would be so apparent that boys and their parents would be eager to avail themselves of the opportunities offered.

We are now exporting from our country enormous quantities of raw material in the shape of pulp, lumber, and other natural products. Into many of these we put a minimum of labor and receive for them a comparatively low price. Some European countries, where industries are highly developed, take a small amount of raw material, and, by working it over with skilled labor, receive for it a very large price. We can never hope to secure



large sums for our Canadian products unless we can put into them a greater measure of Canadian skill, and this Canadian skill can only be developed through vocational and technical training. Viewed from this standpoint, this subject becomes one of national importance.

In considering the establishment of vocational training, I have assumed that the compulsory clauses of the Act would, at first at any rate, apply only to boys. This does not mean that I would not have vocational training provided for girls. It only means that in their case I do not think it would be necessary to make attendance compulsory. Nine out of ten women eventually become homemakers, and if proper facilities for training in household science are provided for girls between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years, no compulsion will be needed to induce the most of them to take advantage of such course. The home and the girl's insight into her own future will supply all the pressure that is needed to secure attendance.

I come now to a consideration of the practical difficulties involved in carrying out the Adolescent School Attendance Act. In my opinion, our educational machinery in towns and cities could be greatly improved and must be improved in the near future. We need a more unified system and control of administration. It is had enough in any town or city to have two School Boards, Public and Separate, managing educational affairs, but this evil is aggravated when we have, as we do have in many towns and cities, a Separate School Board, a Public School Board, and a Collegiate or High School Board. There is no possible excuse for all this cumbersome machinery. Every town and city in Ontario should have a Board of Education to manage public school affairs and high school affairs, and it would be a great advantage if this Board of Education could have for technical advisor a school superintendent, as they have in the towns and cities of the United States.

The single Board of Education to manage public or elementary schools, high schools, and vocational and technical schools, becomes absolutely necessary if the vocational and technical work is to be carried on without friction and without waste of the taxpayers' money. I say "without friction," because, to provide vocational training or other education for all adolescents would require the use of schools, school buildings, and school equipment now owned

and managed in several towns and cities by two different school boards, and it is common sense that one school authority, responsible to the people, could use the school plant to better advantage than two such authorities. I say "without waste of the taxpayers' money," because one Board needs only one office building, one secretary, and one set of office equipment, whereas two Boards must duplicate this machinery.

Every city in Ontario should have a Superintendent of Schools who would act as the Board's technical advisor, and who would, under the Board, be responsible for the management of all classes of schools. Systems of education for any city ought not to be split up into water-tight compartments. Education has many aspects, but it should be unified as much as possible. A School Superintendent having the qualifications now required by the Department of Education of Public School Inspectors, and having a general oversight over every educational project carried on under the School Board, would be a link binding together all school activities. If a strong man, he would have a wide field for the initiation and development of educational movements to suit the needs of the people. If a weak man, the responsibilities of his position would soon force him to give way to one better fitted to serve the public. This system of one Superintendent to direct every kind of school activity is not only in use in every large American city, but it prevails in Great Britain and in all Canadian cities outside of Ontario. This Section of the Ontario Educational Association, charged especially with promoting the interests of urban schools, could not possibly undertake any more important educational reform than the securing of a School Superintendent for every large urban centre.

The Adolescent School Attendance Act may be brought into force by an urban Public School Board, a Board of Education, or an urban Separate School Board by passing a by-law at a special meeting, after giving due notice in the local newspaper. The Board passing the by-law bringing into effect the Act may also make every necessary regulation prescribing the kind of classes pupils are to attend and the nature of the attendance required of pupils of different ages. If the Act be put into force by a Board of Education it would seem that every necessary power is given that Board to put the Act effectively into practice. But if the Act

is put into force by an urban Public School Board or Separate School Board, it would seem that it could not work out satisfactorily because the providing of all vocational classes is left to the Advisory Industrial Committee of the High School or Collegiate Institute, and this Advisory Industrial Committee might or might not provide those classes in accord with the wishes of the School Boards invoking the Act and in accord with the needs of the people. The Act professes to provide machinery by which an Advisory Industrial Committee could be forced to provide vocational classes; but as this machinery provides for a vote of all the ratepayers, it places the provision for vocational training initiated by either a Public or Separate School Board at the mercy of a vote by the school supporters of a wholly different school system, who might not be equally interested in the working of the Act.

The Act is, in my opinion, a move in the right direction. It has great possibilities, but to work with even a fair prospect of success it must either be amended to give to either urban Public School Boards or urban Separate School Boards power to establish and conduct vocational classes, or, if this is not done, we must have legislation to force the creation of Boards of Education wherever we now have separate urban Public School Boards and High School Boards, and we must also have under a Board of Education a Superintendent-Inspector capable of giving advice concerning every type of school and every phase of school work.

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**"STOP, LOOK AND LISTEN"**

I. E. FAREWELL, K.C., WHITBY.

These words should be painted in large letters across each piece of road crossed by a railway track. They should be printed in display type above every announcement as to the movement of railway trains, in every newspaper. They should be posted up in every jail and prison yard. They should be displayed in every market-place and on every large weigh scale and certainly in every schoolroom in the country.

Why is all this publication and posting up of these words required? For the same reason that the words "Safety First" have received so much publicity and consideration of late. They certainly should be posted in public schools, to save valuable lives of children who, as they grow up, may have more sense than their fathers and mothers as to this matter. What is the toll of death taken annually by railways on this continent, because people are on railway tracks at times and at places when and where they have no right to be?

In Canada, Mexico and the United States, while trespassing on railways, there were 4,746 people killed, 826 more lost one limb, 172 more lost two limbs and 5,041 met with other serious injuries, making a total of 10,785 killed and injured *during one year*. Three thousand four hundred and eighty two of these persons sustained injuries in cities where the blessings of civilization have brought with them so many means of destruction, such as motorcycles, auto-trucks, automobiles, etc.; but out in the country, where people have plenty of time and plenty of room to take care of themselves, 3,421 persons received serious injury through trespassing on railways; and in towns and villages, where people think they are remarkably cute and sharp, and know how to take care of themselves, 3,882 people were killed or seriously injured.

Why were all these people killed or injured? Simply because they were walking on railway tracks or railway grounds, where they had no business, or because they did not take ten seconds to "Stop, look and listen."



Statistics show that more persons trespassing on railways are killed or seriously injured in each year than are killed amongst the millions of passengers, many of them riding long distances, upon railways. And in addition to this, we have statistics showing that the number of trespassers killed exceeds not only the number of passengers killed, but also the number of laborers who are lawfully on the track, engaged in repairs and construction as well.

So many charges of negligence were made against railway employees that, by statute, it was made the duty of County Crown Attorneys to have Coroner's inquests held in every case of death occurring during the construction and operation of railways. Coroners' Juries are now paid fees (far too small) for the services rendered. Coroners' fees (lately increased), constables' fees, Crown Attorneys' fees (which seem never to increase in amount), the medical men employed to make post-mortem examinations when circumstances point to negligence by any railway official, also receive fees. The persons operating the railway train lose their time and incur expense, as do the other witnesses, who are called and get nothing for their loss of time and expenses. Add to this the time lost from productive labor by all these people, who are necessarily present at inquests, and by the dozens of men who always drop their work and are in attendance when an inquest is going on. Is the public interested in stopping trespassing on railways?

If the trespasser killed is a stranger, the expenses of his burial have to be added. So, looking at the matter from a money point of view, it is certainly time that efforts were made by more publication of warnings and by lengthy periods of imprisonment of persons who trespass upon railways.

Besides all this slaughter of the CULPRITS, who are killed because they were where they had no right to be, there is also the slaughter of innocents, who have a right to cross the railroad at certain times, but not the right of way at all times over the track. These people are generally very busy people—so busy that as they approach the railway they will not take thirty seconds of valuable time to "Stop, look and listen" for trains, and are killed as a matter of course.

"Familiarity breeds contempt," it is said. Out of the 10,785 persons killed and injured during the year, it is known that 4,994 lived near the place of accident. People living near the railway,

and who cross the tracks, think that, having learned the schedule time for certain trains, that all they have to do is to look out for scheduled passenger and freight trains. They utterly neglect the fact that railways have a right to have ten times as many wildeat engines and extra trains passing over the line as they have regular trains.

The last Coroner's inquest I attended before writing this paper was on the body of a deaf man who lived near a railway track, who used to go on the track to pick up coal. Evidence showed that he had been warned many times by officials and others to keep off the track. The only answer this "wise guy" would make to these warnings would be that he knew what time the trains came along as well as the railway men did. Unfortunately, he did not know what time the wildeat engine came that killed him.

The inquest before that was upon the body of a very knowing, sober, respectable farmer, who had been for months driving his children down to Oshawa School, and going back to Oshawa to take them home from school, so that he crossed the track four times a day, and thought he knew the schedule time of all regular trains as well as the railway people did; and in this he was probably correct. But the railway officials knew nothing of the movements of the wildeat engine which killed him. The day was stormy, the road he was driving on crossed the track at an acute angle, he, his wife and two girls had their ears covered with wraps, and driving practically in the same direction as the approaching irregular engine. When at the track, "Very busy man, he," he did not have ten seconds of time to "Stop, look and listen." He whipped up his horse with such good effect that the horse got over the track all right, but the carriage was smashed and so was the busy man, who knew just when the trains were to cross the road on which he was driving. His wife was crippled for life, and one of his children seriously injured.

After many years' experience as a County Attorney, I am satisfied that little is to be hoped for by calling the attention of the men who drive across railway tracks without stopping, looking and listening, to the dangers of such a practice, and the only hope of preventing this great loss of life and heavy expenditure for Coroners' inquests and litigation in every county, by persons injured or their personal representatives, against railway companies,

is by posting notices on the walls of the schoolrooms, with the statistics showing the deaths and severe injuries occasioned to persons trespassing on railways or through their carelessness in crossing railways, without exercising due care. There should also be statistics posted in schoolrooms showing the large number of deaths and injuries occasioned to persons who commit trespass by walking along the railway track.

Our twentieth century civilization has, unfortunately, brought with it many new dangers, as great, if not greater than, the level railway crossings. The street car, motor truck, automobile, motorcycle and the cycle without a motor, driven or ridden by many thoughtless, heedless and unskilled persons, who often act as if persons in carriages and foot passengers have no rights which they are bound to respect. In cities, in winter and in summer, slippery and water streets are thronged with these instruments of destruction. Add to them the clanging auto fire-engine, and the rushing ambulance and the efforts of the drivers of other vehicles trying to avoid the latter, the people, old and young, must “Stop, look and listen,” if they value the safety of life and limb.

Would it not be wise if the school authorities were required to have painted in large letters in every schoolroom the words, “Safety First,” and “Stop, look and listen,” and also that the teachers should be ordered to require the whole school to repeat these words collectively, both slowly and rapidly, until these directions become so impressed on their minds that they become a part of the mental outfit of each pupil. Thirty seconds daily will do the work.

One of my early schoolmasters was an old Irish Roman Catholic, who wielded his flat, hard wooden ruler very often—sometimes when he should not have done so, and always when he should. Notwithstanding this propensity, he had many of the traits of a good teacher. He did more good work in pointing out our duties in life and warning us of the dangers of forming bad habits, and the pitfalls to which we would be exposed, and the advisability of acquiring habits of industry, honesty and sobriety, than any other of my teachers.

There were none of the sources of danger above referred to at that time, nor dangers arising from newly invented and complicated machinery, causing many serious accidents, in his day. If he were

teaching now, he would be constantly warning his pupils to "Stop, look and listen."

With these words placed conspicuously in the schoolroom, the tactful teacher would doubtless be sure to apply them to the conduct of the lives of the pupils, in warning them to STOP and consider before forming habits of idleness, carelessness and vice; and as Stittin, the boys' man, says, to "LOOK a long way ahead" and see where such habits will lead them, quoting from Butler's Hudibras:—

"And look before you, ere you leap;  
For as you sow, you are like to reap."

The crimes which cause so much injury to the young and so much expense to the public are committed because children do not Stop to Look ahead and Listen to the voice of age and experience.

If the Kaiser, the lineal descendant and fiendish successor of Atilla, King of the Huns, who called himself the "Scourge of God," and boasted that "Grass never grew where his horse had trod," would stop his song of hate (his eyesight has been so dimmed by the grandeur of his own sublimity that he has not been able to Look), he might put his ear to the ground and hear what he might have expected as the result of his machinations, viz.:—

"The song of freedom strong,  
Standing guard at the gates of earth.  
Side by side, our flags flung wide,  
Proclaim the pride of our kindred birth.

Take note, all ye of the alien speech,  
Of our peoples, no longer twain, but one—  
One in creed, one in our need,  
One in battle and deed,  
We shall win, not lose.

Be warned, all ye of alien kind,  
From Polar barren to Isle impearled,  
This shout you hear, so near and clear,  
Is the marching cheer of the lords of the world.



Side by side we work our part,  
That light may broaden and law command.  
This is our place by right of race,  
By God's good grace and the strength of our hand.

The strength of our hand in every land,  
'Till the Master's work of the world be done|.  
For the slaves release, for the bonds of peace,  
That war may cease from under the sun.

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## *THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS.*

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### THE RURAL PROBLEM.

Among men and women who are familiar with life in rural communities there appears to be a general agreement that rural conditions are not what they should be. The rural problem, as it is commonly spoken of, is usually stated by writers and speakers on rural life somewhat in the following form:

“The rural population is decreasing; farm labor is becoming scarce; life on the farm is unattractive. Some means should be taken to improve rural conditions so as to prevent boys and girls from leaving the farm and going to the city, and, if possible, to induce city-dwellers to return to the farm.”

But before we can accept this statement of the so-called problem, it is necessary for us to examine it carefully and to ask ourselves certain questions regarding existing conditions. Is it true that the rural population is decreasing, and that the drift to the city is responsible for it? Is this cityward movement of such a nature that it can be checked? Is the decrease in rural population, in any case, undesirable? If so, is it possible to take any effective measures to counteract its results? I shall try to answer these questions briefly in turn.

### DECREASE IN RURAL POPULATION.

It is true, in the first place, that the rural population in most districts does show a decrease, but investigation has proved that the drift to the city is not so great as is generally supposed, and that the decrease is in a large measure due to rural migration to the newer provinces. Less than 30 per cent. of the increase in the population of the great industrial centres is due to migration from the country to the city.

### THE DRIFT TO THE CITY.

It is unlikely, furthermore, that the drift to the city, such as it is, can be effectively checked. The city is the centre of intellectual

and social life, and decried it as we may, city life will always appeal to young people. Compared with the moving panorama which the city presents, the drudgery of milking and plowing and doing chores, and the solitude of long days in the fields and dreary evenings within doors seems intolerable. The city is, moreover, the centre of industrial activity, and the factory and office will continue to draw upon the fresh, vigorous life of the country for their best workers. Aside from all other conditions, the prospect of a regular weekly or monthly salary in the city, money to spend and the opportunity of spending it, is one of the great inducements which leads young people to leave the farm for the city. In any case, until the farm itself becomes a paying investment for money and labor, it is idle to talk of keeping young people on the farm.

#### RURAL LABOR CONDITIONS.

Decrease in rural population, to whatever causes it may be due, is undesirable when it reduces the supply of farm labor to such an extent as to decrease production. There is no doubt as to the scarcity of farm labor in Ontario, but there is no direct evidence that this scarcity has interfered seriously with production, although it has added to the drudgery of the farmer. Even if the drift to the city could be checked, it is doubtful whether it would greatly relieve labor conditions. But in time the migration to other provinces will decrease, and this will help the situation. In the meantime, the farmer must learn to utilize labor-saving devices and must depend upon improved machinery, more economical methods of labor and better organization to make up for the shortage of farm help.

#### THE REAL PROBLEM.

Decrease in rural population is also undesirable when it increases the isolation of the farm home and affects the social life of the community; and it has had this result in Ontario. The rural telephone and the daily newspaper are some compensation, it is true, but they do not take the place of the social gatherings that were so common twenty-five years ago. At the same time, also, as a result of the various changes that have taken place in recent years, people in rural communities have come to feel that there is something wrong with rural conditions, and that life in the country does not present the opportunities for development and for social enjoyment

that it should. How is it possible to improve these conditions so as to make life in the country in all respects more profitable and enjoyable for those who spend their lives on the farm? This is, after all, the real rural problem. It is, in reality, a question of rural reorganization, and into the solution of this problem a number of important factors enter.

### THE OLD-TIME RURAL SCHOOL.

Of all the agencies which make for the economic and social betterment of the rural community, the rural school is, however, generally considered to be the most important. But if the rural school is to play an important part in solving the rural problem, it must itself be reconstituted. As an illustration of the outgoing type of rural school and rural teachers, let me refer again to my own experience. The school building in which I taught some twenty years ago was an unpainted frame structure, standing close to the roadway. It boasted of a small school-yard, well sprinkled with stumps, and punctuated in wet weather with mud-holes. Water for all purposes was obtained from a neighboring farmhouse. Within the schoolhouse itself were rows of uncomfortable wooden desks, which reminded me of the high pews in an old-fashioned church. The room was heated with an immense box stove situated near the door, and was lighted by a row of narrow windows on both sides of the room. The unsightly walls were bare of pictures or adornment of any kind. At the front of the room was a platform and teacher's desk, and behind the desk a narrow strip of plaster blackboard. The school contained no library and no equipment of any kind except a few torn maps, a small globe, and a well-worn rubber strap.

The teacher was an eighteen-year-old boy—brought up for the most part in town and with no knowledge of the farm. He did not know sandy loam from heavy clay or a Holstein from a Jersey. He had, to guide him, a "limit-table" defining the work to be done by each class, and he set himself energetically to cover that work. But the whole background of his teaching was as far remote from the home lives and the natural interests of his pupils as it was possible for it to be. In that forlorn, barn-like building, which went by the name of a school, his classes papered impossible rooms, worked meaningless problems in bank discount and stocks, learned the



names of obscure rivers and capes and the dates of unimportant battles, and struggled with the meanings and spellings of words which neither he nor his unfortunate pupils were ever to see again. But his pupils were successful in their examinations, and the inspector's recommendation, of which he was unduly proud at the time, testified that during his term of office the school prospered exceedingly. Incidentally, it should be mentioned that, as a part of his duties, he kindled the school fire and swept out the school (it was never scrubbed), and that at the annual meeting of the ratepayers a motion of censure was brought in owing to the fact that he had used two boxes of chalk during the year, whereas his predecessor had succeeded in getting along with one. In his spare time outside of school, in accordance with the instructions he had received at the Model School, he visited each family in the section, and as a result of these visits he had learned to play the violin badly and to take a hand at euchre tolerably well.

My own experience was, I am convinced, typical of that of very many other teachers under the old regime—teachers with limited professional training and with little knowledge of rural life. In such schools as these it was not to be expected that any real preparation for rural life would be made, or that any interest in rural problems would be developed.

#### THE MODERN SCHOOL.

But conditions have changed since then. In this particular section they have built a new brick schoolhouse, which is heated by a furnace. The school yard has been enlarged, and provision has been made for games. Equipment has been purchased, a library has been provided, and the present teacher, who has taken a summer session at the O.A.C., is interested in the work of the school-garden and the rural school fairs.

In many schools throughout the Province a similar improvement has taken place. Higher salaries, increased grants to schools, better training for teachers, more thorough supervision, have resulted in improved conditions. Teachers-in-training are given instruction in Nature Study and Elementary Agriculture at the Normal Schools, and liberal encouragement is held out to teachers who wish to take summer courses at the O.A.C. The Director of Elementary Agriculture is doing excellent work in the encourage-

ment of school gardens and in stimulating an interest in the teaching of Elementary Agriculture in the schools. The result is that in every county there are a number of teachers who are interested in Agriculture, who have some acquaintance with rural problems, and who are working, with intelligence and enthusiasm, to make the rural school an influence in community life.

#### URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS.

But although much has been accomplished during the past ten years for the betterment of rural education, no adequate solution for the rural problem has yet been provided. The present system of rural education at best is uneconomical and ineffective. This becomes at once evident when we make a comparison between conditions in urban and rural schools. To begin with, the ungraded, one-teacher school cannot offer a salary that will attract the best teachers and induce them to remain. The young teacher comes to the rural school fresh from the training-school, in most cases with the avowed intention of graduating into the town or city as soon as she has proved her worth—and the city robs the country of its best teachers. The course of the unfortunate boy or girl in the rural school is too often a series of initiations into the rules and regulations of a succession of new teachers. And, furthermore, where there are a large number of classes, each pupil gets very little of the teacher's time, and the so-called "busy work," at which the pupil spends so much of his time, is in too many cases deadening and worse than useless. In schools where there are Entrance classes and Fifth classes, the pupils in the lower grades sometimes receive very scant attention. Conditions such as this do not, for obvious reasons, exist in graded city schools. The city, moreover, is far in advance of the country in school architecture and equipment, sanitation, medical and dental inspection, supervised play and in provision for hand-work. In very few rural schools, as at present constituted, can any provision be made for household science and manual training. As a matter of fact, the average rural school building possesses few, if any, facilities for carrying on any work outside the subjects on the traditional rural school curriculum.

The remedy for these conditions, and at least a partial solution of the rural problem, must, in the opinion of the speaker, be sought

along three different lines, viz., consolidation of rural schools, special training for rural school teachers, and a rural school extension service. Each of these three will be considered in turn.

### CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS.

From what has already been said as to the disadvantages of the one-teacher rural school, it is easy to see, by inference, what are some of the most marked advantages of the consolidated school. The ideal consolidated school is situated in the country or on the outskirts of a "rural-minded" village. The building itself is modern, with all conveniences in the way of heating, ventilation, sanitation, drinking fountain, rural telephone, mailbox, etc., and, as a matter of course, adequate equipment is provided for all classes. The school has attached to it a school farm of from five to twenty-five acres in extent, for the illustration of farm and garden operations. Besides the regular classrooms, there is provision for the library, and for household science and manual training departments and playrooms. The walls are tastefully decorated, and the school is supplied with copies of the best pictures and with a phonograph, a lantern, a moving-picture machine, and a good library. The school is graded, not on the mechanical lines of the city school, but on a flexible plan adapted to the vigorous mental growth of healthy country children. The principal of this school is a graduate in agriculture, and, if possible, also in arts. The staff does not change so often as in the one-teacher school, for the salaries are better, the building more comfortable and better equipped, and companionship of other teachers is provided. The principal lives in the teacher's residence, which is a part of the school plant, and the produce of the school farm forms an attractive addition to his salary.

One of the great advantages of this school lies in the fact that every pupil gets a fair chance, and no class in the school is neglected. One of the weaknesses of the one-teacher school is that the farm boy or girl who has some free time during the winter months cannot be induced to return to school, and that the pupil who has finished his course in the public school grades must go to the town or city if he wishes to attend the Continuation or High School. But the consolidated school makes it possible for boys and girls to take up winter work, or to go on with their High School classes without

leaving their own school. On the administrative side, also, consolidation has distinct advantages over the older system, since it makes possible closer supervision and better inspection, by the principal of the school and the county inspector alike.

#### ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOLS.

But while consolidation is beyond any doubt a distinct improvement over the system of one-teacher schools, it is sometimes difficult, for local reasons, to carry it into effect, and in such cases a modification of the consolidated system is sometimes possible. In certain localities of the United States where it has been found impossible or inadvisable to put a scheme of consolidation into force, a group or association of district schools has been organized, with a consolidated school, or a high school as its centre. The associated schools in each group are under one Board of Trustees, who provide equipment, text-books, etc., at cost. The principal of the central school also directs the work of the associated schools. Each of the single-teacher schools, where there are pupils over ten years of age, is provided with manual training and domestic science equipment, and provision is made in all schools for work in agriculture. Pupils from each of the one-teacher schools spend one-half day a week at the central school for special instruction in agriculture, manual training and domestic science, and are given home-work to be carried out in their own schools during the following week. The instructor in agriculture in each case is the district representative. To those school sections which for any reason are not in a position to enter into a scheme of consolidating this system offers advantages over the older system, where each school exists as a separate independent unit.

One of the greatest stumbling-blocks in the way of consolidation or association of schools is the fact that our rural schools are controlled by local boards of trustees rather than by township or county boards. Before consolidation can be successful, the single section must lose its identity and become a part of the larger unit. It is understood that the Ontario Department of Education is in favor of such changes in our present system as will facilitate consolidation; but for obvious reasons no steps can be taken in this direction until after the war.



## THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The second great factor in the solution of the rural problem is to be found in the special training of teachers for rural schools. The greatest need of the country district to-day is teachers who understand the needs of rural communities, and who are trained as to the best means of meeting those needs. At present, we make no attempt to differentiate between those who intend to teach in the town and those who intend to teach in the country. All receive the same training, and, as far as I am aware, aside from the rural conference which is held at each of the Normal Schools every year, no special attention is paid to rural problems. Our training schools are all situated in the cities. The teacher-in-training has constantly before him the machinery of city schools and of highly organized graded schools at that. It is true that he is required to go out to a rural school for a few days to observe rural school methods and teach practice lessons; but throughout practically the whole year his methods are directed by city teachers, upon whose approval his success or failure in his examinations depends. And furthermore, when the city-trained teacher completes his course at the training school, he generally prefers to remain in the city, if possible, where salaries are usually higher and work more attractive than in the ungraded country school. The city invariably has first choice of the graduates and the best and strongest teachers go to the urban schools.

## RURAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

In the opinion of the speaker, the time has come for a change in this respect. If the rural school is to do its most effective work there must be a differentiation between training schools for urban and rural teachers, respectively. Certain Normal Schools should be set apart for training rural school teachers exclusively, or, better still, additional Normal Schools should be established in rural centres for the training of rural school teachers.

These rural Normal Schools will in all cases have attached to them a school farm and a consolidated practice school, and within reach of them, if possible, one or more single-teacher schools. And not the least of the advantages of rural training-schools should be the residence for teachers-in-training. The solution of the boarding-

house problem is of much greater importance to the teacher-in-training than much of the theory that he now receives from the training-schools.

As an alternative to the rural training-schools, special courses for the study of rural problems and rural school methods might be established in existing Normal Schools and Faculties of Education, under the charge of a specialist who is familiar with the problems of the rural school and rural community. This plan has been adopted in a number of the training-schools in the United States.

#### THE COURSES OF STUDY.

It would be out of place, in a paper such as this, to discuss the details of the Courses of Study in training-schools, and I shall confine myself to one or two main features. As a matter of course, instruction must be given in principles and general methods. But in my opinion there is very little practical value in much of the abstract theory that has always been considered essential to a course in teacher-training. The study of the Science of Education and the History of Education is necessary to give breadth of view, but for teachers in elementary schools the main outlines should be sufficient. The teacher-in-training in the past has been required to spend too much time on minute and profitless details of Psychology and History of Education. I have yet to meet with a teacher who ever taught a lesson better as a result of the study of History of Education.

Aside from outlines of general principles, the course of study at the training-school must be related to the courses of study in the rural or urban schools, as the case may be. These courses are essentially the same, but the rural teacher should draw his illustrations and his problems from the experiences of the boy or girl in the country, and as a result of his training in a rural Normal School he should be able to do this. How many of the graduates of our own training schools, for instance, know enough of farm life to relate the work in English Composition to the experiences of the boy or girl on the farm? Early last September I was staying on a farm in Western Ontario and had an opportunity to see something of the interests of an eight-year-old boy who had just been promoted to a second-book class. He was interested in the colt which his father had given into his charge, in the transplanting of

a bed of strawberries which his uncle from the city had undertaken to superintend, in the weed-seeds in his mother's vegetable garden, in the katydids that kept up an uninterrupted duet all evening long in the trees in front of the house, in the raccoon that visited the farmyard one very rainy night, and the weasel that killed his mother's chickens. He could have written a small volume on these and similar doings at the farm, but he struggled for a full half-hour to get a single sentence of the story of King Lear, which the new teacher, fresh from training-school, had required the class to reproduce. It is not so much what the teacher knows as her ability to relate it to the pupil's experience that counts.

Agriculture is optional in public schools, and the teaching of the subject is attended with difficulties. But the rural school teacher, whether she attempts to teach it or not, should be able to practise it in connection with the school garden and the rural school fair. The activities of the farm must form the background of the course of study in rural schools, not with the idea of preparing pupils to become farmers, but because the pupil can best be taught in terms of his own experience and environment. And here again the true solution of the difficulty lies in the establishment of consolidated schools, with at least one graduate in Agriculture as a member of each staff. A graduate of the Ontario Agricultural College will not now take a teaching position at a salary of six or eight hundred dollars a year, but a salary of \$1,200 or \$1,500 as principal of a consolidated school, with a teachers' residence and a twenty-five-acre farm attached, would prove a greater inducement. But, be this as it may, the course of training for the rural school teachers must include practical agriculture. The improvement of rural conditions on the economic side is essential to the solution of the rural problem and the school should lead the way in showing the value of scientific agriculture. And the course of study for the rural teacher at the Normal School should not only include agriculture as one of the most important obligatory subjects, but should also involve some study of rural economics which will enable the teacher to understand some of the problems which the farmer has to face. But it is equally important that the teacher-in-training should make some study of rural sociology. Young people leave the farm, we are told, because the city offers greater opportunities for development and for social enjoyment. This is a condition

which the rural teacher can perhaps help to remedy,—but she must be alive to the problem and have some knowledge of how it is to be solved. The charge is sometimes made that the whole influence of the rural teacher is towards the city and away from the country, where her greatest work lies. Her first duty is undoubtedly to do her work in the schoolroom in such a way as to command the respect of the section. And having done this, she must tactfully face the problem of improving the reading conditions of the community and of stimulating an interest in good pictures and good music. The debating club and literary society must fall to her special charge,—and in all these activities the aim should be to make the school the social centre of the community. Within the classroom itself, her influence must be felt in the cultivation of good speech and in placing before the pupils proper ideals of tasteful dress, home-furnishing, etc. And in the home itself she must prove to be a sympathetic and tactful friend. This is perhaps a high ideal, but not too high,—and one that calls for stimulating and inspirational training in the Normal Schools.

#### EXTENSION WORK IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

But granted that the teacher has been so trained as to do effective work in a rural community, even the work of the training-school is only half done. The extension system, or the “follow up” system, as we may describe it, is almost as important as the training itself. It has always been one of the weaknesses of our teacher-training system that when once the teacher leaves the training-school it loses all hold on him. The teacher, in too many cases, gives a sigh of relief that the ordeal is over; consigns his notebooks, crammed to overflowing, to the fire; and unless some special incentive is provided, proceeds to teach along the line of least resistance, following the methods, in many cases, by which he was taught in his own school days. What can the training-school do to make sure that the teacher will carry into practice the principles of method which he has learned at the Normal School?

It is quite evident, in the first place, that there should be the closest possible co-operation between the training-school and the county inspector who is to supervise and direct the work of the new teacher. But from a variety of circumstances the county inspector is becoming more and more an administrative official, whose chief



duty is to take stock of the resources of his inspectorate, to confer and advise with trustees as to equipment, engagement of teachers, etc.; to adjust difficulties in his inspectorate, and to make reports to the Government. It cannot be expected that the Inspector will be in a position to do wide reading or to keep pace with changes in method; and besides, the length of time which he can spend in each school is too limited to be of much real assistance to the teacher. It seems to me that a possible solution of the difficulty lies in the organization of extension work in connection with the training-schools. Let us suppose, for the sake of illustration, that each Normal School is the educational centre of a well-defined district, from which its teachers-in-training are drawn, and for which it does extension work. To each Normal School an additional master must be added, and an extension secretary for office work. It should then be possible to provide for such an adjustment of duties as to permit the masters to be free, in turn, to visit schools, to supervise, to consult with the teachers regarding their methods and their practical difficulties. This scheme would obviate another source of weakness in our present system. Under existing conditions the Normal School master is himself in reality a part of a city system. It is impossible for him to keep in touch with rural conditions and rural problems, and methods of teaching best suited to rural schools. But if each master were forced to spend at least six weeks or two months of each year in country schools, not as a visitor, but as an official supervisor, it would go a long way to remedy this weakness. An extension system involves also a central office, with model equipment, library, plans of buildings, etc., and with machinery for sending out from time to time to the rural schools suggestions, lesson outlines, and other material suited to their methods. This central office is also a bureau of information, where trustees and teachers alike may present their difficulties. This system is at present in operation in connection with certain training-schools in the United States, and is apparently giving excellent results. In some districts a further step has been taken and a model rural school has been established in each county, which forms a sort of extension centre for the county, and at the same time provides a standard for other schools to live up to. We have in this Province, it will be argued, a form of extension in our Teachers' Institute lectures and in our series of Teachers' Manuals, which have been prepared by

the Department of Education. But these are, after all, only partial measures, and do not meet the real difficulty.

#### SUMMARY.

In a paper such as this it is possible to deal with only the main features of the rural school problem, and perhaps in order that these features may stand out clearly it may be well, in conclusion, to sum up the main points which I have tried to get before you, as follows:

In the solution of the rural problem, as we have stated, the rural school must play an important part. The old-time rural school made little or no attempt to adapt itself to rural conditions, and the measures which are being taken at the present time are inadequate. The rural school itself must be reconstituted before present conditions can be remedied. The remedy must be sought for along three lines:

(a) Consolidation, with a graded system, adequate equipment, a school farm, a teacher's residence, and a principal who is a graduate in agriculture. In order to facilitate consolidation, a system of township or county Boards should be established.

(b) Special training for rural school teachers. This can best be secured by the establishment of rural Normal Schools, and by giving greater prominence in the course of study to agriculture, rural economics and rural sociology.

(c) An extension system, by which the Normal School would be brought into closer touch with the problem and methods of the rural schools, to the mutual advantage of both Normal School instructors and rural school teachers.

It is always easier to suggest reforms than to carry them into practice, but the speaker believes that these suggestions are not wholly impracticable, and that, if carried into effect, they would in some measure at least help to solve existing rural problems.

*RURAL SCHOOL NEEDS.*

J. A. TAYLOR, B.A., ST. THOMAS.

There never was a time when it could be more truly said that the only asset any nation had was its children; and there never was a time when it was the paramount duty of the State to preserve its greatest and only asset as now. Humanity is appalled at the incalculable losses in the trenches. Even to-day such is the premium placed on childhood that there is an effort in some directions to legitimize polygamy. The casualty lists, as published, mention the loss of over twelve thousand dead and fifty thousand wounded. It would be a reasonable inference to assume that at least one-half of these, had they lived, would have established homes and would have been the heads of families. If, then, this be true, how fundamentally necessary it is to safeguard the health of the children of to-day, who are to be the citizens of to-morrow? It was Kitchener who said that the last hundred thousand men would win the war. To-day we are bending the energies of the State to get recruits, and we have already refused as medically unfit over one hundred thousand men who had volunteered for the trenches. Had these men been given medical and dental attention in the schoolroom ten or fifteen years ago, a very large number would be to-day in uniform. How much cheaper, too, it would have been to have removed the physical defects then and had them capable of defending the State now, in this, the tragic hour, or the Empire's supreme crisis.

"In times of war prepare for peace," is a wise saying. In the tremendous economic, commercial and industrial struggle that is to follow in the wake of this war, our children, not we, will be the competitors. How incumbent on us who are charged with their education to see that every physical defect and disability is removed, so that when this colossal struggle comes they will not be the hewers of wood and the drawers of water for others. It is possible, too, making allowance for the human equation, the accidents and exigencies of war, that there might be such a thing as a drawn peace. In such a case there would be a reversion to primitive times.

when woman looked after the industrial and man the defensive part of the State. This emphasizes once more the absolute claim of the children of to-day for the removal by the State of any physical disability that might hinder their physical and mental development. The safety of the State is the highest law, and is the supreme duty of every man. The degree of safety and the efficiency of its defence bear a direct proportion to the physical and mental conditions of its citizens.

This raises the question whether dental and medical inspection in the schools is necessary. Assuming that there are two classes of schools, the rural and urban, I quote you statistics of two inspections. In North Middlesex, which is typical of most rural inspectorates as regards local conditions, etc., we find that out of 821 pupils examined, 161 had enlarged tonsils, 82 impaired nasal breathing and adenoids, 94 had defective vision, 295 were afflicted with caries, and 73 had anæmia; that is 705, or 90 per cent., were incapacitated by reason of physical remedial defects from assimilating and appropriating the education which, at great expense, was placed before them. Again, in Toronto, which is typical of most centres, we find that out of 894 pupils examined, 243 were mouth-breathers, 384 had decayed teeth, 249 were troubled with enlarged glands, 269 had pus exuding into the mouth, 288 had constant toothache, and 851 required dental treatment. From the above we see how terribly handicapped such children are in securing even an average education. Impaired vision and hearing means impaired ability to get knowledge. It is found, too, that the great majority of children who suffer from physical disability are from one to five years behind other children of their age in their studies. Thus the average of human intelligence and the average efficiency of the State are lowered. These children swell the ranks of the backward pupils, congest the classes, delay progress, augment the ranks of the vicious, the criminal and the immoral. From careful analysis it is estimated that at least 95 per cent. of all children are afflicted with oral sepsis, which is the cause in most cases, doctors tell us, of indigestion, dyspepsia, gastritis, infected parotid glands, tuberculosis of the lymph glands, anæmia and nephritis. A healthy mouth, with good teeth, means proper mastication; good mastication ensures satisfactory salivation; copious salivation produces improved



assimilation and nutrition. Last week a speaker said at Hamilton that out of four thousand applicants for positions in the railway shops, only 164 had the necessary physical physique to qualify—3,836 were consigned to the human scrap heap.

Then, too there is an ever-increasing number of mental degenerates, whose presence in school is prejudicial to the mental and moral interests of the other pupils. To these mental degenerates and physical weaklings—the product of bad heredity—will be added many emigrants from pauperized Europe after the war is over.

#### WOMEN ON RURAL SCHOOL BOARDS.

This is a consummation devoutly to be wished. Women have amply demonstrated their capacity for leadership and their ability to discharge any duty assumed by or imposed upon them. Their election to rural school boards in many States of the United States, produced a revival of interest and increased efficiency in the administration of the Public Schools. It is unthinkable that many of the unsanitary conditions of the classrooms and outbuildings, the filthy and unwashed floors, blackened ceilings and blindless windows, rusty stoves and rustier stovepipes would be allowed to continue were women elected school trustees. The character of the rural attendance has greatly changed during the last 10 or 12 years. Rarely is there found now a pupil in the Public School 14 years old. The average age is about 9 or 10 years. Who takes so keen an interest in the welfare of such small children, or who so competent to judge of their needs, as women? Moreover, women, more than any other class of citizens, are interested in advancing and maintaining a high standard of civilization, for civilization has lifted them from a condition of degradation that would be intolerable to women of to-day. The introduction of Manual Training and Household Science, the establishment of Dental and Medical Inspection, the improvement in the sanitary conditions and the beautification of the school grounds would be greatly promoted were women given a place on rural School Boards.

#### FREE TEXT-BOOKS.

Notwithstanding the fact that the Regulations permit School Boards to provide text-books free for the public, few rural Boards

have availed themselves of this privilege. This is in marked contrast to City Boards which, in nearly every instance, provide free books for their pupils. Next to irregularity of attendance, there is nothing that hampers the efficiency or interrupts the progress of the school so much as do pupils coming to school without being supplied with proper text-books. I have sometimes visited schools three months after their opening in September, only to find some pupils without the proper books. The loss to the pupils and to the class in such cases is heavy. Moreover, such pupils manifest a disinclination to attend school, and frequently play truant. People remote from the larger centres experience difficulty in getting the books, as the smaller book-stores do not keep them. As the pupils in the average school now are few in number, and the cost of books is reduced to a minimum, the outlay to the Board would be negligible. The reasons which justify free education are the identical reasons which justify free text-books.

#### CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS.

These are the schools of the future. Every new school is a nail in the coffin of consolidated schools and postpones indefinitely their general adoption. Rural mail delivery, the advantages of graded schools, a more efficient class of teachers, higher value of land, the benefits of a High School course, improved roads, better and larger equipment, are all directly associated with these schools. The writer inclines to the opinion that many rural schools, in their lonely isolation, struggling along with a small attendance and without the enthusiasm and competition that come from numbers, having teachers without experience and with inferior qualifications, could merge themselves into strong consolidated schools, manned with teachers possessing the highest qualifications, offering all the benefits of graded classes, owning larger and better libraries and equipped with every modern convenience, including a system of septic tanks, lavatories and an assembly hall. These schools would be the social centres of the community. Here, too, the pupils could remain until they had received a Normal Entrance Certificate, without their parents having to send them to High Schools at great cost, and no little peril because removed from the parental home. The only difficulty inseparable from these schools is the cost and efficiency of transportation. Efficiency not economy should be the aim of every section.

## SCHOOL GAMES.

This is a feature of school life that is sadly neglected. There is no stronger antidote to truancy and irregular attendance than healthy school games and proper equipment. Play is a natural instinct of all healthy children, and to rob them of play is to rob them of part of their heredity. Trustees should encourage games by providing adequate school grounds and proper equipment. The grounds should consist of at least three acres. They should be adequate for all school games and local picnics. Here the youth of the section could meet in the evenings and on holidays to play their games. The Trustees should supply swings, teeters, cross-bars and the equipment for baseball, basketball, croquet and tennis. Were such done, truancy would disappear. The small outlay would be more than compensated by the increased regularity, the improved discipline, the quickened mental activities, the physical development and the more substantial progress.

## SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT.

The child has a legitimate claim to an artistic environment. The aesthetic side of education cannot be ignored. Many of the children come from homes in which the softening and refining influence of good pictures finds no place. The classroom is the child's home. It should be a place where everything is beautiful, an environment where everything is uplifting, ennobling and inspiring. Between 8 and 14 is the child's most impressionable age, and before 12 his character is largely formed and more or less fixed. A bare wall will never develop the aesthetic side of a child's character. The habits, tastes and morals a child forms at school will, in all human probability, continue through life as an asset or liability. Bare walls, torn window-blinds, carved and disfigured desks, rusty stove-pipes, uneven floors, unlevelled and treeless grounds, broken fences and miserable outbuildings offering no privacy or facility of approach, will produce in the mind of the child such a state of contented familiarity that will be reflected in all his after-life, with irreparable loss to himself and permanent injury to the State. The classroom should be as artistic as the child's sitting-room at home. It should have an organ for opening and closing exercises, for literary meetings and for Physical Culture. Music deepens the sanctity of devotional exercises. On the walls should be hung land-



scape paintings, patriotic pictures and national portraits. On one side of the Royal portrait should be the Honor Roll, containing the names of those ex-students of the school who volunteered their lives that civilization might not perish and the British Empire live. Side by side with this Honor Roll, should be printed the principles for which the Empire is fighting, viz., the eternal principles of righteousness, justice, equity and truth. On the other side of the Royal portrait should be placed a Memorial Tablet containing the names of those who had fallen in order that truth, honor and human civilization might survive this catyclasm and be the heritage of posterity. The school is the nursery of patriotism. This Memorial Tablet would remind the children of to-day, who are to be the men and women of to-morrow, that love of country is the noblest attribute of the human soul; that sacrifice, courage and service are the qualities that dignify and ennoble life, and that the real value of life does not consist in life itself, but in the way that life is spent.

#### AN ENRICHED CURRICULUM.

It is now generally admitted that the function of the rural school is to teach more than the three traditional R's; that, in addition to these subjects which are basal to any education, it should teach something along vocational lines; that its environment is agricultural and lends opportunity for observational work; that the reason it was unable to sustain interest and progress in the past was because its work did not bear a direct relation to rural interests and rural life, and the material presented had no connection with the child's life or activities. The curriculum has recently been enriched by the addition of the optional subjects, Manual Training, Household Science and Agriculture. The Department gives large grants to Boards that maintain classes in these subjects. Of the desirability and necessity of teaching them in rural schools there can be no two opinions. Rural girls are no longer taught by their mothers how to cook, sew, knit or darn. Their mothers have neither the time nor the patience. The baker's wagon calls at almost as many homes in the country as it does in the town or city. Ready-made garments find as ready a sale with rural women as with urban. Nor should boys be denied instruction in these arts. Many a soldier in the trenches to-day would have his personal comforts increased were he able to sew or darn. Moreover, many of our boys will be



"squatters" on the hinterland of New Ontario, or on the prairies of the West, where a knowledge of cooking and sewing will be an asset. An annex 12 feet by 16 feet could be added to the school, which would serve as a room for alternate instruction in Manual Training and Household Science. Its equipment would consist of the simpler tools, such as saws, hammers, etc., and a coal oil stove. The larger girls could, under the teacher's supervision, be given a daily practice in preparing a warm dish for each pupil; they could also submit to their teacher samples of their Saturday cooking, with full verbal or written descriptions of the process. True democracy could be demonstrated, and incidentally, good table manners taught when teacher and pupils ate their noonday meal together. The boys could be given practice in making many of the articles required on the farm, such as kennels, rabbit houses, bird cages, etc. Scientific agriculture should also be taught. The school will not have done its duty to the boys unless they leave it with a knowledge at least the equivalent of that which their fathers, at great sacrifice and no small cost, acquired in the bitter school of experience.

#### THE IDEAL RURAL SCHOOL.

I must not close this paper without giving an abbreviated description of an ideal rural school as given by the Education Department in Saskatchewan. "The building will be surrounded by ample playgrounds and gardens. There will be plenty of wind-breaks and other shade-trees. On one corner of the property will stand the Teacher's residence. There will be outdoor workshops. The playgrounds will be supplied with swings, sand piles and other simple and useful apparatus for outdoor gymnastics and games, and the play will be supervised. Much less bookwork will be done than is now expected, but it will be done better. In the afternoons much of the study will be done in the open air, when the occupations of the children will be hand-work. No pupils with defective eyes and teeth will suffer through neglect. The school will be attractive and properly heated and ventilated. It will have verandahs on two sides. Immovable and unadjustable seats will be replaced by furniture suitable for the needs of fraternal societies, religious bodies, etc. Window space will be ample. The school will contain a public reading-room, which will have a public library

and copies of the daily newspapers and magazines. It will also contain varied apparatus for indoor games. There will be a public telephone, a Victrola and a magic lantern. In short, everything practicable will be done to make the school a suitable place for the citizens of the rural community to meet in the evening for self-improvement and the enjoyment of social intercourse."

*SCHOOL DENTISTRY.*

WALLACE SECCOMBE, D.D.S., CHIEF DENTAL OFFICER OF SCHOOLS,  
TORONTO.

Educationists are more and more recognizing the fact that the actual knowledge acquired by the scholar in school is relatively less important than the acquirement by the child of good habits and a right attitude toward life, society and work. Increased attention is being given to the importance of the development of the physical, in conjunction with the other faculties of the child. Indeed, the strenuous age in which we live, and the amount of physical energy consumed in keeping pace with present-day activities, makes, for the average man, the physical link, the weakest link in the chain. Most men fail in the accomplishment of all they plan because of the limitations of their physical strength. Education has come to mean the development of all of the child's faculties—physical, mental, moral, and social—that there may be produced an individual, prepared and ready to play the part of a useful citizen, and thus contribute to the uplift, the general advancement and the development of society.

Educationists are also interested in the physical development of the child, because of the intimate and close relationship between the physical and the mental, and the appalling waste of time and money in attempting to develop the mental faculties beyond the point that the child's physical condition and strength will permit.

It seems an absurd regulation which enables a child to attend school just because of having attained a certain age, arbitrarily fixed, without regard to the physiological, psychological and general health conditions of the individual child. Burnham claims that entrance on school life is rendered too easy, and that parents would prize the opportunities and privileges of the school more if they were harder to obtain. He advocates a compulsory, thorough-going physical examination before admittance, and summarizes the advantages as follows:

1. To prevent those children from entering who are in ill-health, or not sufficiently developed physically and mentally.

2. To provide the necessary physical data to enable teachers so to order the school work, that it will not result in injury to health, or be a check to development, as frequently happens in the first year of school.

3. That proper grading and adaption of school occupations to individual capacity may begin at the outset of school life.

4. To give school health officers the necessary data for safeguarding the health of children against diseases and other conditions.

5. To give teachers proper knowledge of the new pupils, and the right attitude toward them.

6. That children may begin right, and be saved from unnecessary failure, retardation or elimination in later grades.

7. To educate parents and foster a right home attitude toward the school.

8. Thus to save money, so badly needed, to provide for absolutely essential hygienic school conditions.

Regarding the minimum physical standard that should be met before a child is admitted to a regular class, Dr. Burnham suggests:

Height 3 feet 9 inches; weight 44 pounds; chest circumference 20 inches; and further, as evidence of adequate physical development, that all children entering school should have erupted all four of the six-year permanent molar teeth. Physical standards should be the same at this age for boys and girls, although for girls a little less may be permitted regarding height and weight. The presence of all four six-year molars, however, should be required, of both sexes, and for all types.

Furthermore, in addition to the desirability of a thorough physical examination before entrance, some effort should be made to improve the dental conditions of children of the pre-school age. In Toronto schools, comparison has been made of the percentage of children with defective teeth in the several school grades, and it has been found that the teeth of scholars at the time of school entrance are in a more diseased condition than at any subsequent period. Statistics show that in the senior classes the percentage of scholars with defective teeth is 38 per cent., and in the junior classes 68 per cent. That is to say, the two senior classes are 13 points above the average, and the two junior classes 17 points



below the average. In the whole city, taking into account all grades, the number of scholars with defective teeth has been reduced, during the past four years, from 95 per cent. to 51 per cent. This splendid showing is due to the active co-operation of the home, the teachers, and the school nurses with the school dental officers. A plan is being considered in Toronto of reserving a certain period of the dental officers' time each week, when mothers may bring, to the school clinic, babies and other children of the pre-school age, and consult with the school dentist concerning oral conditions, diet, as it relates to the teeth, and general questions of dental hygiene. It is hoped that some such plan will be adopted, and will result in greater home interest and improved dental conditions among the children of pre-school age.

The vital importance of the first set of teeth cannot be over-estimated. They serve the child during the period of most important development, and, under normal conditions, function in the mouth for from six to ten years. If allowed to decay, proper mastication is impossible, because of the resulting pain or soreness. The food is consequently "bolted" and normal digestive action is interfered with. In the absence of mastication, the teeth become coated with a mucilaginous film, which predisposes the teeth to further and more rapid decay. Thus we have a vicious circle operating (decay, pain, lack of mastication, increased decay), one condition predisposing and aggravating the other,—"cause" producing "effect" and "effect" producing "cause."

Over ninety per cent. of school children in the Province of Ontario are afflicted with dental disease. The extent to which humanity, in general, suffers from defective teeth can be appreciated, approximately, by any man who will sit down and investigate his own dental conditions, and those of his relatives, and his immediate friends. These conditions are tolerated because the damage occasioned by diseased teeth is not generally understood. The average man would be alarmed if pus were to ooze continually from his arm; but the same individual is quite content to allow pus to exude from his teeth and gums, notwithstanding the continual swallowing of the same. Nature expels the pus, to get rid of it; but when the discharge occurs in the oral cavity, and the pus is swallowed, nature is circumvented, and serious conditions result. However, an even more serious form of infection is that which

lodges about the roots of teeth, and, without causing dental pain or discomfort, sets up a chronic source of infection, which reaches the general circulation. Thus a secondary infection occurs in some other part of the body, far removed from the teeth. In this way we may account for many obscure cases of rheumatism, neuritis, diseases of the heart, kidney and organs.

At the outbreak of the war, recruits were asked to meet the regular militia dental standards, but it was found that the teeth of the average citizen were in such a condition that thousands of men, otherwise physically fit, were rejected, because of the condition of their teeth. The situation became so serious that it was necessary for the Government to eliminate entirely all dental regulations, and recruits are now received without regard to their teeth, providing they are otherwise physically fit. To meet the situation, the Government found it necessary to organize the Canadian Army Dental Corps, for the purpose of placing Canadian soldiers in fit dental condition to serve their country. If we do our duty toward the boys and girls of the rising generation, and should Canada ever again be drawn into war, our boys will be found able to pass the militia dental standard. We shall not, as a nation, suffer the disgrace of having such a large percentage of recruits rejected because of the condition of their teeth, as occurred in the early days of the present war.

Dental disease is no respecter of classes. The poor suffer as do the rich. Experience shows that the children of wealthy parents are in just as great need of school dental service as are the children of the poor. All suffer alike from dental neglect and ignorance. It is impossible, without special training, for parents to discover dental disease in its early stages. The inaccessibility of the teeth, and the tendency of the child not to report early symptoms, renders periodical and systematic examination an absolute necessity for all children. Why not face the issue squarely and give adequate dental service to each child, at the expense of the state? This plan appeals to dentists as the only one which will give efficient dental service to the rising generation, and should likewise appeal to the citizens, not only because of greater efficiency, but because of the large economic saving which results. Instead of one hundred children each travelling some distance to the family dentist, and each being called upon to pay for service thus rendered, how much more

sensible and saving would be the plan of having the authorities employ a dentist, to visit the schools, make periodical examination of the teeth, give necessary treatment, and instruct the scholars in oral cleanliness? Through the co-operation of the home and the daily follow-up of the school teacher, a wonderful impetus would thus be given to oral cleanliness, with the resultant increase in the health, comfort, appearance and self-respect, of the boys and girls of the Province.

School dental clinics have been organized in most of the important urban centres of Canada, and the service is usually available only to the children of the poor. In Vancouver, no child is entitled to free dental service unless the earnings of the family are at the rate of \$3.00 per member per week, or less. It has been found, however, that this arbitrary ruling has occasioned some dissatisfaction and consequent opposition from those whose earnings are slightly above the amount named. We would urge the desirability of making it optional with all parents, whether the child shall be treated at the school dental clinic or by the family dentist. In no case should a child be refused dental treatment at the school clinic, if the parent requests the same. The average working man to-day, with an average family, cannot afford to pay for adequate dental services for his children, if forced to obtain such service through the regular channels. The sooner this fact is recognized, the better. Dental service is, from the standpoint of the state, an absolute necessity for each child; and this service should be supplied to every child whose parents wish to avail themselves of it. The average cost of completing all dental needs (including fillings and treatment) for scholars in the schools of the city of Toronto, is about two dollars per child, and it is safe to say that if this amount of service had been rendered in the ordinary way it would have cost the parents at least five times that amount.

Good teeth are essential to good health, and are claimed by Dr. Harvey Wylie to be "more important than the multiplication table or the double rule of three. We should endeavor to reach all people of this country especially through the public schools. If this can be done, and mouth hygiene can thus be placed upon a practical basis, the next generation will present a very different aspect from the present one, in so far as their mouths are concerned. When these good offices can be properly performed, it will be as unusual to find

diseased teeth among our grown population as it is, to-day, to find good teeth. The dentist, instead of expending his efforts in removing the debris of poor mouth hygiene and trying to save the wrecks which poor living has produced in the mouth, will devote himself more especially to the remedial agencies of minimizing decay and magnifying conditions that tend to good. The teaching of mouth hygiene should, therefore, be made universal in our public schools, and through the press and the magazines, so that all of our people may be awakened to the necessity of care and caution, and that mouth hygiene may become a universal knowledge and practice."

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# Ontario Educational Association

### 1917---1918

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| <p> Allan, Thomas, Durham.<br/> Allan, Mrs. Thomas, Durham.<br/> Allen, Miss L. M., Athens.<br/> Alexander, Miss H. B., 40 Gilmour St., Ottawa.<br/> Alward, Miss H. V., Haileybury.<br/> Armstrong, Miss L. W., Chatham.<br/> Ault, Mrs. J. W., Winchester.<br/> <br/> Ball, C. E., Chesterville.<br/> Ballance, W. A., Strathcona, Ont.<br/> Bannister, George, Haliburton.<br/> Bateson, Mrs., London.<br/> Beeton, Miss Mildred, Windsor.<br/> Bellamy, R. H., Mount Brydges.<br/> Bell, Miss Winnifred, Arnprior.<br/> Bernath, A. C., Huntsville.<br/> Black, Mrs. M. J. L., Fort William.<br/> Boville, W. N., Blind River.<br/> Bolton, Miss E., Ottawa.<br/> Brackinn, Miss S. C., 73 Wilson Ave., Toronto.<br/> Brady, Charles A., Dundas.<br/> Braice, Andrew, Windsor.<br/> Bray, H. E., Thamesford.<br/> Brown, Dr. Caroline, 323 Ossington Ave., Toronto.<br/> Brown, Miss Laura M., Meaford.<br/> Brown, Miss Mabel, Meaford.<br/> Brown, Mrs. M. W., Wycliffe College, Toronto.<br/> <br/> Cameron, Mrs. C., St. Catharines.<br/> Campbell, Miss Laura, Drayton.<br/> Carney, W. H., Sault Ste. Marie.<br/> Carney, Mrs. W. H., Sault Ste. Marie.<br/> Casselman, A. C., North Bay.<br/> Cheer, Miss Bessie, Sault Ste. Marie.<br/> Christilaw, Mrs. H. B., Blind River.<br/> Cook, Miss Alta L., Meaford.<br/> Coldbick, Miss M., Haileybury. </p> | <p> Cooper, A. B., Brighton.<br/> Courtice, Mrs. A. C., Beech Ave., Toronto.<br/> <br/> Dale, Ernest A., Kingston.<br/> Dance, Miss Helen, St. Thomas.<br/> Day, Herb. A., Haileybury.<br/> Day, Mrs. Herb. A., Haileybury.<br/> Dickenson, E. A., Wallaceburg.<br/> Dolan, J. H., Oshawa.<br/> Downey, W. H., Windsor.<br/> Downey, Mrs. W. H., Windsor.<br/> Dyce, Harry G., Meaford.<br/> <br/> Eadie, W. M., Brantford.<br/> Eastwood, V., Peterboro.<br/> Edwards, C. B., London.<br/> Elliott, H. E., Listowel.<br/> Ellis, Miss Rosie, Listowel.<br/> Ellis, Miss Agnes, Parry Sound.<br/> <br/> Ferguson, Miss Edith, 840 Richmond St., London.<br/> Ferguson, Miss Mary, 840 Richmond St., London.<br/> Flack, W. J., Pembroke.<br/> Fredenburg, N. K., Little Current.<br/> <br/> Gavin, F. P., Windsor.<br/> Gee, Miss Norma, Listowel.<br/> Gill, Miss Sara, Kingston.<br/> Goulding, Miss H. M., Prescott.<br/> Graham, R. G., Gananoque.<br/> Graham, Mrs. L. E., Peterboro, R. R. No. 7.<br/> Graves, Miss Eliza, Meaford.<br/> Grant, D. M., Sarnia.<br/> Grant, Miss Jennie, Clinton.<br/> Griffin, A. D., Chatsworth.<br/> Griffin, Mrs. A. D., Chatsworth.<br/> Gulston, Chas. S., Picton. </p> |
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Gunn, Miss Artina, Durham.

Hackett, Mrs. Winnifred,  
Orangeville.

Hackett, E., Orangeville.

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Haig, Miss Marjorie, West Lorne.

Halliday, Miss Ida, Chesley.

Halliday, Miss Edna, Chesley.

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Hay, Miss Hazel F., Listowel.

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Howell, W. B. L., Port Arthur.

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 McLean, Miss J., Chesley.  
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 Oliphant, Miss Sophie, Collingwood.  
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 Wilcock, Miss E. K., Flesherton.  
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 Alexander, Miss F., 43 Roxborough St. W., Toronto.
- Batten, Miss E., Dewson St. School, Toronto.  
 Buttery, Miss G., 302 Wolfe St., London.  
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 Black, Miss T., 337 Maitland St., London.  
 Buckley, Miss A., 17 Elm Ave., Toronto.  
 Bain, Miss F., Balmy Beach School, Toronto.  
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- Carrol, Miss E., 33 Linden St., Toronto.  
 Chamberlain, Miss L., 113 Oakwood Ave., Toronto.  
 Chamberlain, Miss F., 113 Oakwood Ave., Toronto.  
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 Carson, Mrs. J., 26 Prospect Ave., London.  
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 Cameron, Miss S., 206 Arlington Ave., Ottawa.  
 Coady, Miss, 427 Crawford St., Toronto.
- Convey, Miss A., 252 Major St., Toronto.  
 Christie, Miss M., Pape Ave. School, Toronto.
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- Hossack, Miss, 234 High Park Ave., Toronto.  
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 Henderson, Miss B., 251 Wortley Rd., London.  
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- Jolley, Miss K., Withrow Ave. School, Toronto.
- Kidney, Miss M., Nanton Apts., Toronto.  
 Keyes, Miss B., Dewson School, Toronto.

- Kirby, Miss D., 63 Cowan Ave.,  
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- Lucas, Miss M., Shirley St. School,  
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- Leighton, Miss T., 2 Bloor St. E.,  
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- Lancaster, Miss E., 648 Dundas St.,  
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- Linden, Miss, Earl Grey School,  
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- McIntyre, Miss, Normal School,  
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- Nudel, Miss L., Earls court School,  
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- Peters, Miss, Hillcrest School,  
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- Robinson, Miss J., 33 Hepbourne St.,  
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- Rudd, Miss L., 389 Burwell Ave.,  
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| Green, Miss C. E., Normal School, Ottawa.           | Sheffield, Miss Lilian, 22 Delaware Ave., Toronto.      |
| Laird, Miss, Lillian Massey Schools, Toronto.       | Sutherland, Miss I., 21 Rose Ave., Toronto.             |
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| Fisher, A. W., Stratford.                        | Pickles, Sugden, Normal School, London.          |
| Fisher, Mrs. A. W., Stratford.                   | Power, J. T., Guelph.                            |
| Fowler, Fred., Seaforth.                         | Slaughter, E., 843 Dovercourt Rd., Toronto.      |
| Fowler, Miss M., Seaforth.                       | Semple, Miss Jessie, 52 Dundonald St., Toronto.  |
| Hill, Miss M. A., 132 East Ave. South, Hamilton. | Stoodley, Miss S., 2171 Gerrard St. E., Toronto. |
| Hughes, Dr. Jas. L., 47 Dundonald St., Toronto.  | Scarrow, A. N., 150 Delaware Ave., Toronto.      |
| Hatch, S. B., 59 Oakmount Rd., Toronto.          |  |
| Johnston, Geo. L., 155 Robinson St., Hamilton.   |  |

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| Devitt, L. K., Cobourg.                       | Stafford, T., W.E. Y.M.C.A., Toronto.        |



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| de Guerre, Miss L. B., Orillia.                      | Marty, Miss S. E., Coll. Inst.,<br>Stratford.      |
| Fairley, B., University of Toronto,<br>Toronto.      | Menhennick, Miss A. M., Coll. Inst.,<br>London.    |
| Ferguson, W. C., University School,<br>Toronto.      | Mitchell, Miss J. A., 97 Bloor St. W.,<br>Toronto. |
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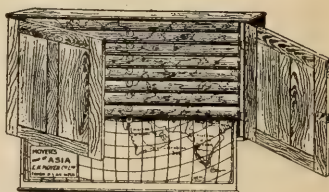


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